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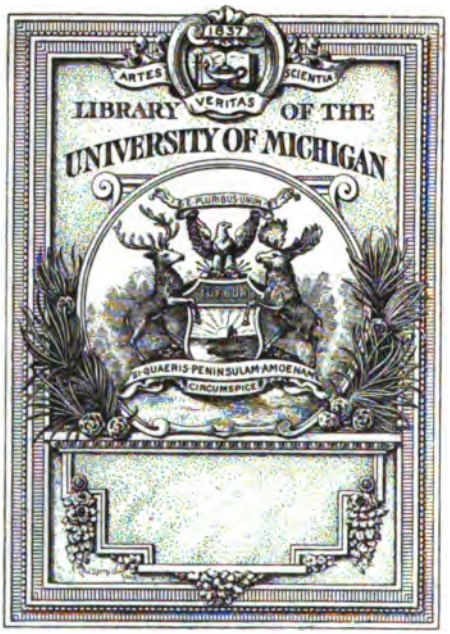
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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

COTTON GOODS TRADE

OF

THE WORLD,

AND

THE SHARE OF THE UNITED STATES THEREIN.

REPORTS FROM CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE TRADE IN COTTON YARNS AND TWIST AND COTTON MANUFACTURES IN THEIR SEVERAL DISTRICTS,

WITH AN

INTRODUCTORY LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF STATE.

Pam. 4.

No. 12.

PUBLISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1881.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE WORLD, AND THE SHARE OF THE UNITED STATES THEREIN.

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF STATE INTRODUCTORY TO THE REPORTS FROM CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE TRADE IN COTTON YARNS AND TWIST AND COTTON MANUFACTURES IN THEIR SEVERAL DISTRICTS.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, June 25, 1881.

On the 19th of March, 1880, a circular, which is herewith published, was mailed to certain of the consular officers of the United States, requesting them to forward such facts as were within their reach in regard to the trade in cotton yarns and tissues in their several districts.

It is to be regretted that at that time particular importance was attached to cotton yarns alone, and that, in consequence thereof, the circular, instead of being sent to the entire corps, was mailed only to such points as were likely to deal in yarns.

In justice to our consuls, who are always ready to respond to the commercial demands of our manufacturers and exporters, and who might otherwise lie under the imputation of having failed to respond in this very important case, it is deemed necessary to publish the following list of consulates to which the circular in question was transmitted, specifying at the same time those from which reports were and were not received:

The Argentine Republic:	
Buenos Ayres	Reported.
Austria-Hungary:	
Trieste	Reported.
Vienna	Reported.
Barbary States:	
Tangier	Reported.
Tunis	Reported.
Bolivia:	
La Paz	No report.
Brazil:	
Bahia	Reported.
Pernambuco	Reported.
Rio de Janeiro	No report.
Chili:	
Valparaiso	No report.
Australasia:	
Auckland	Reported.
Melbourne	Reported.
Fiji	Reported.
West Indies:	
Barbadoes	Reported.
Bermuda	Reported.
Jamaica	Reported.
India:	
Calcutta	Reported.
Ceylon	Reported.
British Guiana	Reported.

Hong-Kong	No report
Mauritius	No report.
Sierra Leone	Reported.
Greece:	
Patras	Reported.
Guatemala	Reported.
Hawaiian Islands	No report
Hayti	Reported.
Honduras	No report.
Italy:	
Florence	Reported.
Milan	Reported.
Rome	No report.
Japan:	
Kanagawa	Reported.
Osaka and Hiogo	Reported.
China:	
Amoy	Reported.
Canton	Reported.
Chinkiang	Reported.
Foochow	Reported.
Hankow	Reported.
New Chwang	No report.
Ningpo	Reported.
Shanghai	No report.
Tientsin	Reported.
Colombia, United States of:	
Aspinwall	Reported.
Panama	No report.
Sabanilla	No report.
France:	
Bordeaux	Reported.
Havre	Reported.
Lyons	Reported.
Paris	No report.
Rouen	Reported.
Germany:	
Berlin	No report.
Barmen	No report.
Frankfort-on-the-Main	Reported.
Hamburg	No report.
Liberia	No report.
Madagascar	Reported.
Mexico:	
Mexico City	Reported.
Matamoros	Reported.
Netherlands:	
Amsterdam	Reported.
Rotterdam	Reported.
Nicaragua:	
San Juan del Norte	No report.
Peru:	
Callao	No report.
Portugal:	
Lisbon	No report.
St. Paul de Loando	Reported.
Russia:	
Odessa	No report.
St. Petersburg	No report.
Salvador:	
La Union	No report.
San Domingo:	
Puerto Plata	No report.
San Domingo	No report.
Siam:	
Bangkok	No report.
Spain:	
Barcelona	No report.
Malaga	No report.

Sweden and Norway:	
Stockholm	No report.
Turkey:	
Beirut	Reported.
Constantinople	Reported.
Smyrna	No report.
Tripoli	Reported.
Uruguay:	
Montevideo	No report.
Venezuela:	
La Guayra	No report.
Maracaibo	No report.

The circular was sent to 79 consulates, of which 33 failed to respond; 46 reports, received in response to the circular, are herewith published.

As the professed object of the circular was the collection of such statistics as would be of interest to the cotton manufacturers of the United States, it may be easily inferred that the forty-six reports received from the foregoing consulates—able as many of them undoubtedly are, and valuable and instructive as the samples of yarns and goods forwarded therewith must prove to the American industry—fall far short of anything like a fair showing of the cotton-goods trade of the world. As it would be a very incomplete exposition of the subject to permit these reports to go forth without additional statistics, such facts as may tend to inform our manufacturers concerning the extent of the trade of the various countries are given, as well as details which will enable them to judge whether they can or cannot profitably compete for their fair proportion. These additional facts are mainly compiled from the official trade returns of the United Kingdom.

It may be further stated that nothing but substantial or presumably substantial facts have been presented in this letter, speculation being entirely rejected as unworthy a place in a commercial report.

The details of the trade of each country are given under the general heading of the continent to which it belongs, this being considered the simplest and most comprehensive arrangement.

DETAILS OF TRADE BY COUNTRIES AND CONTINENTS.

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

The total exports of cotton manufactures from the principal countries to all Africa are set down as follows:

From the United Kingdom	$16,049,000
From and through France	5,500,000
From the United States	817,000
From all other countries (estimated)	3,500,000
Total to Africa	25,866,000

Beginning at Egypt and passing around the entire continent by the North, West, and South Coasts, and ending at Madagascar and Mauritius on the East Coast, a cursory review of the trade of the different countries and possessions is given, showing the share of the United States therein as compared with that of England and France, and giving such consular and other opinions as may serve to point out the best methods for the increase of American trade.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF EGYPT.

The following statements show, as far as the official publications of the countries mentioned will permit, the volume and variety of the cotton goods trade of Egypt.

Exports from Great Britain to Egypt, 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn.....lbs..	2,942,000	$690,000
Piece goods, plain.....yards..	119,849,400	6,736,000
Piece goods, printed.....do....	24,261,800	1,807,000
Total piece goods	144,111,200	8,543,000
Lace and patent net goods		29,000
Hosiery		29,000
Total exports to Egypt		9,291,000

As compared with the year 1879, the foregoing shows a decrease in the exports of yarn and twist, but an increase in piece goods of nearly 48,000,000 yards, and of $2,500,000.

France.—The exports of cotton goods from France to Egypt amount to only about $320,000; of these the greater portion is composed of goods in transit through the country—from Switzerland and Germany principally.

The United States.—The official returns of the United States make no mention of any exports of cotton goods to Egypt. It is possible, how-

ever, that, through the courtesy of British merchants, some of our plain piece goods reach that market, for on page 349 of the Consular Reports for the month of February, 1881, the importation of 500 yards of American cottons, marked "English goods," by a firm in Alexandria, is noted.

It is evident, therefore, that British cotton manufactures almost monopolize the Egyptian market.

According to official valuation, the prices of British cottons exported to Egypt during the year 1880 were as follows: Yarn and twist, 23.47 cents per pound; plain piece goods, 5.62 cents per yard; and piece goods, printed, 7.86 cents per yard.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF ALGERIA.

The exports of British cottons to Algeria during the year 1880 were as follows: Piece goods, plain, 8,230,500 yards, valued at $452,000; piece goods, printed, 4,012,000 yards, valued at $277,000; all other cotton goods, $29,000, making a total of 12,242,500 yards, valued at $758,000.

The French exports of cottons to Algeria, according to the latest official returns, amounted to $3,240,000, of which French goods comprised $2,970,000, the balance being goods in transit through France.

There are no direct exports of American cotton manufactures from the United States to Algeria.

According to a report from the American Consul at Algiers, the imports of cotton manufactures into the colony from all countries amounted to $10,500,000 in 1877. It is quite probable that the greater portion of the Algerian imports of cotton goods, the French imports excepted are of British origin, received from various British colonies and entrepots. It is thought, however, that the imports as given by the American Consul were overestimated, and that the value of cotton goods imported into the colony does not exceed $6,000,000 annually.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF MOROCCO.

The British returns make no mention of any exports of cotton yarns to Morocco. According to the interesting report from Consul Mathews, of Tangier, which will be found in its proper place in this volume, there is, relatively, a large import of British and French yarns—that is, yarns imported from France—into the country, for the manufacture of a cloth, worn by the people generally, a sample of which accompanies the report of the Consul.

The exports of British cottons to Morocco during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	15,252,100	$948,000
Piece goods, printed	1,371,700	126,000
Total	16,623,800	1,074,000

The exports of cotton goods from France to Morocco are not specified, being entered under the general head of the Barbary States. The trade, however, must be very limited, as the total French exportation to the Barbary States amounts to less than $80,000 a year.

There does not seem to be any direct trade in American cotton goods in Morocco. From the tenor of Consul Mathews's report, wherein he gives the name of a firm in Tangier "reliable, and advantageously located for the sale of yarns and all sorts of cotton stuffs manufactured in the United States," it is probable that such a trade might be established.

The prices of British piece goods exported to Morocco, as given above, were as follows: Piece goods, plain, 6.21 cents per yard; piece goods, printed, a fraction over 9 cents per yard. It will be noted, by comparison, that the British cottons exported to Morocco are superior to the class of goods sent to Egypt.

COTTON GOODS TRADE OF TRIPOLI AND TUNIS.

The total exports of British cottons to Tripoli and Tunis during the year 1880, according to British official returns, consisted of 727,300 yards of printed piece goods, valued at $63,000.

As there are no direct exports of American cottons to Tripoli and Tunis, and as the total exports from France to all the Barbary States do not exceed $80,000, it is evident that the cotton goods trade of these two countries was very insignificant. Such is not the case, however, for Consul Jones, of Tripoli, gives the imports of cotton goods at that port alone as amounting to $483,000 for the quarter ending June 30, 1881. The greater portion of these imports were undoubtedly British, but being imported from Gibraltar and Malta they do not appear in British export returns.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF THE WEST COAST.

The West Coast embraces Senegambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Liberia, Dahomey, Calabar, and Lower Guinea.

The total commerce of Great Britain with the West Coast is as follows: Imports from the West Coast, $11,200,000; exports thereto, $9,906,000—a total trade of $20,206,000.

France imports from the West Coast $11,214,000, and exports thereto $4,000,000—a total commerce of $15,214,000.

The total commerce of Great Britain and France with the West Coast is, therefore, $35,220,000.

The United States customs returns do not specify our trade with the West Coast of Africa as the British and French specify the trade of those countries, but it may be safely assumed that our total trade therewith in 1879, the year upon which the foregoing returns are based, did not exceed $300,000, of which sum $200,000 comprised our exports thither. It is thought, however, that our trade with the West Coast during the year 1880, and the first half of the present year, will show a large increase upon that of 1879.

The cotton-goods trade of Great Britain with the West Coast of Africa during the year 1880 was as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	21,508,000	$1,079,000
Piece goods, printed	51,538,200	3,372,000
Total	73,046,200	4,451,000

Of the foregoing the amounts sent to British West Africa were as follows, the remainder going to the foreign colonies and settlements:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	14, 280, 500	$753, 000
Piece goods, printed	20, 390, 200	1, 477, 000
Total to British West Africa	34, 670, 700	2, 230, 000

being nearly one-half of the quantity and more than one-half of the total value.

The average price per yard of the British cottons exported to the West Coast was as follows: Piece goods, plain, to British West Africa, 5.34 cents per yard; to Foreign West Africa, 4.51 cents per yard; piece goods, printed, to British West Africa, 7 24 cents per yard; to Foreign West Africa, 6.07 cents per yard.

The exports of cottons from France to the West Coast—principally to the French colony of Senegal, amount to about $1,100,000; of which, however, all but goods to the value of $100,000 were in transit; thus showing a very meager trade in French manufactures proper.

There are no means of arriving at an approximation of the value of our cotton-goods trade on the West Coast of Africa. We are represented by Consular officers at Sierra Leone, Liberia, Gaboon, and Saint Paul de Loando; but no reports have been received from any of those places, save from Sierra Leone and Loando. These reports will be found of interest, giving, as they do, the extent of the cotton goods trade of the colonies and the quality of the manufactures consumed there.

Reports received at various times from Consul Lewis, of Sierra Leone, concerning the progress of American trade in general in that colony, indicate that an opening exists for American cottons, provided our manufacturers supply the styles demanded by the market. In a dispatch dated March 15, 1880, Consul Lewis says:

The imports from the United States on the west coast of Africa are continually increasing.

These articles find a ready sale, many of them being superior to other make, and are sought after in preference: American axes, hatchets, hammers, saws, hoes, chisels, augers and bits, cooking-stoves, kerosene-oil stoves, nails, safes, sewing-machines, and hardware generally.

In roofing-slate other countries cannot compete either in quality or price. Powder being put up in handsome varnished kegs is superior in appearance and strength. The only objection urged against American powder is, that it is not put in 4-pound kegs as well as 5-pound, as dealers claim that a 4-pound keg will sell for the same as a 5-pound keg; hence the advantage of other packages as against the American. The same objection is urged against American calicoes and cotton goods. The English cottons are put up in pieces of 12 and 20 yards, and sell for so much the piece, whereas the American cottons as a rule are in pieces ranging from 40 to 50 yards.

Twelve yards of cloth cut from a large piece is not as salable in this market as a piece regularly made up containing just twelve yards. This seems like a very slight affair, but it is a most serious objection in the way of an easy introduction of American cottons.

All the pine lumber used in the colony is imported from the United States.

American trunks (cheap grade) have a large and steadily-increasing sale.

All imported provisions, save rice, come from the United States, as also hats, boots and shoes, chairs, tables, and furniture generally, scales, soaps, both toilet and common, perfumery, clocks, patent stencil-plates, telephones, grindstones, canned goods, all kinds, Needham's musical cabinets, illustrated Bibles, steel engravings, street lamps, baskets, stylographic pens, and a great many small articles too numerous to specify.

Consul-General Smyth, of Monrovia, in a dispatch dated May 2, 1880, concerning American trade in Liberia and the Soudan, says:

American articles in demand are tobacco, cotton goods, salt provisions, and improved implements of husbandry, guns and powder.

As to the trade of the west coast, I have the honor to inform you that from San Pedro to the Gaboon River, American vessels may be seen at all seasons of the year, some remaining on the coast from one year to one year and a half.

The principal commodities brought by them to the coast are tobacco, rum, rice, and provisions, and pine lumber, all of which are sold at a good profit; palm oil, palm kernels, and ivory, and money, are received in exchange by these traders.

Rum and tobacco are articles of trade here which are controlled exclusively by Americans.

From correspondence by letter and personal interviews with resident merchants and traders, I have learned that the native traders are anxious for an increase of trade with America, in view of the advantages in prices, fair credit system, and quality of commodities.

There are at least fifty ports between Cape Palmas and the Old Calibar where the English steamers stop, the majority of which are free ports. The most important of these are English and French ports.

This trade which is being carried on, and of which we possess very little reliable data, is almost wholly under the protection of foreigners, there being but few American consulates on the west coast.

I am decidedly of opinion that a line of steamers to the west coast would be of great benefit to our commerce and in a short time secure for our manufacturing and agricultural interests a permanent source of wealth and contribute largely towards the civilization of Africa.

American houses here would in a short time monopolize the trade. Competition of European houses against them would do very little, inasmuch as European traders must get their principal articles of trade from America through European markets.

It is impossible to give even an approximate estimate of the extent of the trade which would be commanded by American houses; but I may state in general terms that they would have through Liberia, on account of the peculiar connection of the republic with the United States, the almost exclusive control of the trade in a region of country extending along five hundred miles of coast, with an indefinite back country inhabited by millions of people.

The Soudan has been reckoned to contain more than one hundred million people.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF SOUTH AFRICA.

South Africa embraces the two British colonies of Cape Colony and Natal.

The exports of British cottons to South Africa during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	8,459,400	$673,000
Piece goods, printed	15,584,100	1,511,000
Piece goods, mixed	672,000	102,000
Total piece goods	24,715,500	2,286,000
Hosiery, stockings, and socks		112,000
Hosiery, other sorts		24,000
All other cottons		486,000
Total		2,908 000

The exports of French cotton goods to all British Africa amount to only about $50,000. It may be easily inferred, therefore, that the exports to South Africa are very insignificant.

There is no trade in American cotton goods in Cape Colony, although there is relatively a fair trade in American goods of other descriptions.

Consul Edgecomb, of Cape Town, in his annual report for the year

1879, says that "there has been a large trade for many years in American goods in this colony. The value of the imports from the United States during 1879 amount to $1,171,886, and the exports thereto amount to $518,000."

According to Consul Edgecomb's report, the trade of Cape Colony during the year 1879 was as follows: Imports, $34,410,000; exports, domestic, $17,412,000.

The imports of Natal amount to about $8,360,000, and the exports of domestic produce to about $3,230,000, of which wool alone amounts to $2,000,000.

The imports of cotton goods into Natal amount to about $630,000, almost wholly British goods.

Mr. Cato, Consular agent at Natal, in a dispatch dated January 1, 1880, says, in regard to American trade with that colony:

> Last year I reported that this colony received from the United States as follows: 1877, 9 ships, 2,808 tons, £49,121 of goods; 1878, 8 ships, 2,868 tons, £62,741 of goods; and during the past year, 1879, 8 ships, 3,313 tons, £93,872 of goods—showing a healthy state of progress.
>
> I am led to believe that during the present year, or so soon as things settle down to steady work, trade, and business, that a regular line of sailing ships will be laid on between this colony and the United States. Should any information on any particular point be required, I shall be glad to supply it.

The price per yard, according to the official valuation, of British cottons exported in 1880 to South Africa was as follows: Piece goods, plain, 7.95 cents, and piece goods printed, 9.70 cents. From this it appears that the cotton goods required in that market are comparatively of a superior quality, and this in itself should be largely in favor of the introduction of American goods.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF THE EAST COAST.

The East Coast embraces Sopola, Mozambique, Zanguebar, and the islands of Zanzibar, Madagascar, Mauritius, and Reunion. This is the only portion of Africa in which American cottons have divided the trade with British goods.

In this division of trade lies the assurance of our being able to divide the trade of the whole continent, provided like means are taken for the introduction and development of our trade in South, West, and North Africa, which have produced such satisfactory results on the East Coast.

The total exports of British cottons to the East Coast during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	7,665,500	$418,000
Piece goods, printed	6,147,500	422,000
Total piece goods	13,813,000	840,000
All other cottons	.....	199,000
Total	.....	1,039,000

Of the piece goods above specified, 5,030,000 yards were plain, valued at $277,000, and 3,964,000 yards were prints, valued at $267,000. Nearly three-fourths of the whole were exported to the British Colony of Mauritius, which shows that the trade in British cottons is insignificant in the Native States on the East Coast.

The average price of British cottons exported to the East Coast during the year 1880 was as follows: piece goods, plain, to Mauritius, 5.50 cents per yard; to the Native States, 5.34 cents per yard; piece goods, printed, to Mauritius, 6.74 cents per yard; to the Native States, 7.08 cents per yard.

The exports of cotton goods from France to the Native States on the East Coast are not worthy of mention. The exports to Reunion, a French colony, are about $300,000 per annum, of which French goods comprise about $120,000, the remainder being goods in transit through France.

The principal centers of the American cotton goods trade on the East Coast are Madagascar and Zanzibar, and it may be said that our goods monopolize these markets.

The total imports of British goods, of all sorts, into Madagascar during the year 1879 amounted to only $110,000, and the total imports from France to $78,000, while the imports of American cotton goods alone during that year amounted to $380,000.

Of the total imports from all countries into Zanzibar during the year 1879, viz, $3,000,000, those from the United States amounted to $544,000, of which cotton goods alone amounted to $447,000; nearly one-half the total imports of cotton goods into the island being of American manufacture.

In regard to the condition of the American cotton trade on the East Coast, and to the possibilities of its enlargement, the following extracts from reports from our Consuls in that portion of Africa will prove interesting:

Consul Robinson, of Tamatave, Madagascar, in his annual report for 1879* writes as follows:

American brown cottons.—Our trade (in Madgascar) is still restricted almost entirely to our unbleached cottons and kerosene oil. No other brown cottons are now brought to this port.

American printed cottons.—In regard to the introduction of other productions of the United States, we are in the same condition as when I reported last year; and the suggestions I then made as to what was needed in that direction are still pertinent. Until some move shall be made similar to those then suggested, we shall see no material increase to our trade here, and Europe will continue to supply this market with everything except unbleached cottons and kerosene. Of a variety of American productions not yet brought to this market, but which might be successfully introduced if determined effort should be made, perhaps the leading one would be cotton prints. The quantity sold must equal, if it does not exceed, the quantity of unbleached cottons. The women of the coast districts generally wear the prints, and in the interior they wear prints much, but not as universally as on the coast. However, the Hovas, both men and women, have a fashion of making their "lambas" of two thicknesses, the outside of unbleached cottons and the inside of prints; this is considered as doing the genteel. These prints are all of European production, and have been selling in this market during the last two years at 10 to 16 cents per yard; these prices causing much grumbling among the merchants, as they are lower than formerly. For some reason, unknown to me, our manufacturers and exporters seem to have become possessed of the idea that they cannot compete with Europe in the markets of these parts in this line of goods, and consequently resign the field without any effort, save now and then an ill-aimed light shot from the skirmish line; and as such skirmishing does not disturb the solid front of the European trade, they fall back disgusted.

I believe our merchants could, by a proper effort, take a good share of the trade in this line in this market. I will give a little incident in point—it was a very small affair, but, being the only case of offering American prints here during my sojourn, I can point to no other. An American employed at this port a short time ago was compelled to leave abruptly for home on account of ill health. Among his effects that he did not wish to take with him were a few pieces of American prints which had just been sent to him by a friend at home as a present and to try the market. These effects were left in my charge to be sold, and the avails to be applied in payment of certain small liabilities of the owner. On examination of the goods, I remarked that the prints were a bad selection for this market, being, with the exception of two pieces,

* See Commercial Relations for 1879, vol. 1, p. 231.

all of one pattern and quite dark colors I put them into the hands of a trader in this town, to be sold quickly on the best terms he could get, not expecting to get more than cost. A few days afterward I received a note from this trader saying that a merchant from Mahanoro was in town after goods, had seen these prints, and wanted them, offering ten cents per yard for the lot. "Shall I let them go?" asked the trader in his note. As the wholesale cost in the States was only four to five cents, I replied, "Let him have them." The prints went off, and three weeks subsequently the merchant was back here inquiring for more American prints, which could not be found. He told me the last yard of the lot had been sold, but that he had sold them very cheap. I afterward learned from other sources that his "*very cheap*" price was twenty cents per yard.

In reviewing the condition of our trade with Zanzibar, Secretary Evarts, in his letter transmitting to Congress the reports of the Consuls upon the commerce of their respective districts for 1879, wrote as follows:

The imports of Zanzibar during the year ending September 30, 1879, amounted to $3,013,000 and the exports therefrom to $1,737,000.

The imports from the United States amounted to $544,000 and the exports thereto to $686,400. Of the imports from the United States, cotton goods amounted to $447,000—nearly one-half the total import of cotton goods into the island; the remainder of the imports from the United States consisting of petroleum, soap, biscuit, clocks, chairs, fire-arms, hardware, lamps and lamp-trimmings, &c.

From May 16, 1876, to September 30, 1879, the exports from Zanzibar to the United States were valued at $2,536,000, of which $1,156,435 went in American vessels; the remainder, $1,379,292, went in British mail-steamers to New York *via* London.

The consul communicates the pleasing intelligence that, owing to the efforts of British cruisers, the slave traffic on that coast has almost been brought to an end.

Back of Zanzibar lies the country of the Great Lakes, inhabited by millions of people, barbarous and semi-civilized. Should the suppression of the slave trade be succeeded by the blessings of civilized commerce, it would be the dawning of a brighter day for this portion of Africa.

The comparatively prosperous condition of our trade with Zanzibar is, doubtless, due to our long-established commercial relations therewith—a treaty of commerce having been negotiated between the United States and the Sultan of Muscat as far back as 1833—and to the further important fact that there are three American houses engaged in trade on the island.

RECAPITULATION OF THE AFRICAN COTTON GOODS TRADE.

The total exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to all Africa during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn (all to Egypt) ..... lbs.	2, 942, 000	$690, 000
Piece goods, plain ..... yards	180, 964, 900	10, 306, 000
Piece goods, printed ..... do..	103, 615, 600	7, 578, 000
Piece goods, mixed ..... do..	672, 000	102, 000
Total piece goods ..... do..	285, 252, 500	17, 986, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	29, 000
Hosiery:		
Stockings and socks	.....	112, 000
Other sorts	.....	53, 000
Sewing thread	.....	.....
All other cotton goods	.....	714, 000
Total to Africa	.....	19, 584, 000

The foregoing exports show an increase over those for 1879 of nearly 68,000,000 yards of piece goods, and an increase in the value of piece goods of $3,450,000.

The total exports of cotton goods from France to the continent of Africa, according to the latest official returns, amount to a little over $5,000,000 per annum, of which $3,567,000 worth are French manufac-

tures, the balance being goods in transit through France from neighboring countries, principally from Switzerland and Germany.

In this total trade of France, Algeria consumes French cotton goods to the amount of $2,967,000, thus leaving only $600,000 worth for consumption by all Africa outside of that colony.

If the value of French cottons shipped to the French colonies of Algeria, Senegal, and Reunion be subtracted from the total trade with Africa, it only leaves a balance of $430,000 for distribution over the remainder of the continent.

Great Britain, on the contrary, exported to her African colonies during the year 1880, cottons to the value of $5,682,000 only—a sum less than her trade with Egypt alone—while her trade with the continent outside of her colonies amounted to $13,902,000.

The exports of American cottons to Africa during the fiscal year 1880, according to the returns of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	6,774,543	$467,865
Piece goods, printed	3,661,269	258,090
All other cotton goods		4,295
Total to Africa	10,435,812	730,250

The total commerce of Great Britain, France, and the United States with Africa is as follows:

Countries.	Imports from Africa.	Exports to Africa.	Total imports and exports.
Great Britain	$94,000,000	$66,470,000	$160,470,000
France	53,000,000	54,000,000	107,000,000
United States	3,354,000	4,370,000	7,724,000
Total	150,354,000	124,840,000	275,194,000

Deducting the exports of British and French cottons from the total exports from Great Britain and France to Africa, and we have a general export trade of over $96,000,000, made up principally of coal, woolens, iron, wrought and unwrought, machinery, linens, copper and manufactures of, leather goods, hardware, fire-arms and ammunition, spirits, cutlery, clothing, jewelry, medicines, silk goods, wines, tools and implements, pottery, glassware, breadstuffs and provisions, kerosene oil, refined sugars, soaps, paper and stationery, furniture, timber, and tobacco in which we ought to participate to the extent of at least $20,000,000, instead of less than $4,500,000, as at present.

If the total value of the cotton-goods trade of Africa is taken into consideration, and our share in the trade of Madagascar and Zanzibar be relatively extended to the whole continent—and, as before remarked, there can be no doubt that if the same means are taken to introduce and build up our trade elsewhere in Africa as have been taken in those two islands, the same happy results would ensue—there is a market for at least $5,000,000 worth of American cotton manufactures on that continent.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF DOMINION OF CANADA.

According to the official returns the imports of cotton manufactures into the Dominion of Canada during the year 1879 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	13,350,387	$902,831
Piece goods, printed	33,105,713	2,560,005
Ginghams and plaids	323,393	21,607
Wearing apparel	.....	320,325
All other cottons	.....	2,746,779
Total	46,779,493	6,551,547

According to the foregoing returns the imports from Great Britain and the United States were as follows:

FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	3,820,756	$259,041
Piece goods, printed	18,749,024	1,547,044
Ginghams	140,489	13,068
Wearing apparel	.....	148,492
All other	.....	1,803,520
Total	22,710,269	3,771,165

FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	9,526,713	$643,256
Piece goods, printed	14,348,227	1,011,835
Ginghams	91,904	8,603
Wearing apparel	.....	167,178
All other	.....	935,907
Total	23,966,844	2,766,779

The imports of cottons from Great Britain and the United States into the Dominion amounted to $6,547,944, leaving only a balance of $13,603 to represent the imports from all other countries.

The decrease and increase in the imports of cottons in 1879 as compared with 1877 were as follows:

British goods—decrease.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	1,543,472	$171,296
Printed piece goods	4,100,297	465,578
Ginghams	118,795	7,317
Wearing apparel	.....	52,000
All other	.....	516,280
Total decrease	5,762,564	1,212,471

American goods—increase.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	2,168,568	$106,899
Piece goods, printed	602,524	18,963
Ginghams	48,687	4,240
All other goods	.....	188,746
Total increase	2,819,779	318,848

A decrease in American wearing apparel of $24,173 leaves the net increase in the imports of American cotton goods $294,675 against a decrease in the imports of British goods of $1,212,471.

According to the Canadian returns, the price per yard of the British and American cottons imported during the year 1879 were as follows: British: plain goods, about 6¾ cents; prints, 8¼ cents. American: plain goods, 6⅞ cents; prints, a fraction over 7 cents.

It would thus seem that American piece goods averaged less per yard in the Dominion than the British goods. It might therefore be asked why our goods cannot also compete in prices with British goods in other markets.

Not having received any special reports in relation to the cotton-goods trade from the consulates in the Dominion, no further particulars concerning it can be given.

The commercial agent at Chatham, in his annual report dated August 3, 1881, writes as follows:

I feel quite confident there is a good opportunity to increase the sales of American cottons for shirtings and sheetings in this market. The quality of the Canadian manufacture is so decidedly inferior to that of American production that the difference in price is more than made up by the superior *quality* and *durability* of the goods. This fact is beginning to be generally realized by all who have tested the Canadian and American cottons.

The duty on cotton, bleached or unbleached, is 1 cent per square yard and 15 per cent. ad valorem, and the same for cotton sheetings, drills, and ducks. If American manufacturers can sell these goods at the prices paid here for Canadian cotton the duties would make them only about 2 cents per yard higher, and I am quite confident their superior quality would cause them to be preferred, even at the difference in price, to the Canadian manufacture.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF MEXICO.

The exports of British cottons to Mexico during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	15,012,700	$909,000
Piece goods, printed	19,052,100	1,375,000
Piece goods, mixed	943,400	122,000
Total	35,008,200	2,406,000

The foregoing shows an increase on the exports of 1879 of 11,662,300 yards and $672,000.

The total exports of merchandise from Great Britain to Mexico during the year 1880 amounted to $6,235,000, being nearly double the value of

the exports of the preceding year, and the largest year's trade with Mexico during the last decade.

The exports of cotton goods from France to Mexico, according to the latest official returns, amounted to about $1,420,000, of which French cottons constituted only $190,000, the remainder being goods in transit, from Germany, Switzerland, and other countries.

The exports of American cotton goods to Mexico during the fiscal year 1880 are given as follows in the official returns:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	*Yards.*
Piece goods, plain	2,808,228	$224,181
Piece goods, printed	6,402,170	501,648
All other cottons	.....	106,406
Total	9,210,398	832,235

The average price per yard of British and American cotton goods exported to Mexico as above, was as follows: British goods, plain, 6.06 cents; printed, 7.22 cents. American goods, plain, 6.97 cents; printed 7.84 cents.

It is highly probable that there is a considerable trade in American cottons across the border which does not appear in the American customs returns, and which in the absence of Mexican statistics it is impossible to compute. The returns of Canadian imports from the United States for the fiscal year 1879—as will be seen by reference to the trade of the Dominion—show that 23,966,844 yards of American cottons were entered through the Canadian custom-houses for consumption, while the official returns of the United States for the same year record an export of American cotton goods to Canada of only 4,884,408 yards; a difference of 19,082,436 yards. If a similar state of trade exists along the Mexican border as that which exists on the Canadian border, it will be seen at once that the foregoing returns of the exports of American cottons to Mexico do not represent any thing like a fair showing of the trade.

Two very interesting reports on the cotton-goods industry of Mexico, and on the imports of foreign cottons, will be found in their proper place in this volume.

In regard to the cotton-goods trade of Mexico, and the best means by which the trade in American manufactures may be increased, the following extracts are given from reports which have been already published by this Department, but which are just as pertinent and instructive now as if especially written for this work:

[Extract from a report by Consul Sutter, of Acapulco, published in 1880.]

But, as I have stated already many times, by far the most important articles of import into Mexico are cotton goods, bleached sheetings and shirtings, as well as prints drills, muslins, jaconets, lawns, hosiery, &c. This trade is still in the hands of European houses, mostly German, the senior partners of which reside in the manufacturing districts of Europe, mostly in Manchester, and work with European capital at low rates of interest. With the experience they have acquired through a long stay of years in Mexico, they carry out, personally, with great care the orders transmitted to them by the junior partners residing abroad. All the goods are manufactured, finished, put up, and packed in a manner suited exactly to the wants of the especial district of the country which is to be supplied. Prints which sell at Acapulco would, in all probability, not suit the trade of Mazatlan, or of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec; quality and width of printing cloth, patterns, styles, finishing, labels, &c., all have to be considered.

The best method of introducing our manufactures into this country is simply the establishment of agencies and depots at the city of Mexico for the interior, and at a port of the west coast for the south and west, the agent having the task not only to sell the actual manufactures and products of the house or houses he may represent, but to study closely the wants and tastes of the different sections of the country which is to be the field of his labors. He will also have to pay great attention to the resources and productions of the country, to the development of which he may contribute by offers of purchase or barter, and make profitable returns to his employers. Further, the European houses have introduced a system of six and twelve months' credit, which the American importers for the present will have to adopt in soliciting customers, until perhaps some time later they may succeed in gradually establishing a cash trade. The agent must be a man of great discernment, commercial experience, and knowledge of human character, capable of selecting responsible parties who will be punctual in meeting their engagements for his customers. A perfect knowledge of the Spanish language is indispensable.

[Extract from a report by Consul Morrill, of Manzanillo, published in 1880.]

Of dry goods, principally common shirtings and prints, England furnished 50.83 per cent., whilst our exporters only participate in this line of goods with 0.75 per cent. This small proportion looks rather strange, and more so if we consider the fact that cotton is cheaper in the United States than in England; that we have probably just as cheap and better skilled labor, at any rate better and more appropriate machinery than in England, whilst the sea freights, which, according to our geographical situation should be lower, are more or less on a level with the European rates.

Our manufacturers and export merchants having these advantages should come in for a fairer proportion of the dry goods trade of Manzanillo and all Mexico. Their strict adherence to cash transactions with foreign countries, no doubt a good business principle in trade with countries where capital is abundant and money obtainable at low rates of interest, is a formidable barrier against the extension of the American dry goods trade, and trade in general, in Mexico. English and German merchants have for the last thirty years established branch houses throughout this republic; they are represented by men that understand perfectly the language and customs of this country; they attend to the sale of the goods, and to the general direction of all transactions necessarily pertaining to this trade; in this way the merchants at home run comparatively no risks. Why cannot our merchants adopt the same routine of business? As a natural consequence, the export trade takes the same roads established by the import trade; the Mexican produce, such as hides, cedar and cabinet woods, indigo, &c., as well as the Mexican dollars, is shipped to Europe in payment of invoices. The differences in the values of imports and exports at Manzanillo, which, as per annexed statements, amounted to $522,574, was remitted to Europe by way of Mazatlan, Mexico, and Vera Cruz. Mazatlan, Guaymas, and La Paz consume a considerable amount of the produce of this State, such as soap, sugar, rice, &c. About 1,500 tons of this produce were shipped during the last fiscal year to Mexican ports on the northern coast. This coasting trade is performed by Mexican vessels; the arrivals and clearances during the same period being 33 vessels, with a total of 3,050 tons.

[Extract from a report by Consul Kelton, of Mazatlan.]

The returns for the year ending June 30, 1879, on being compared with those for the corresponding period in 1878, exhibit an increase in exports and a decrease in imports; notwithstanding, there has been a larger importation of American goods than in the preceding year, especially in cotton prints (Indians), scarcely known here six years ago.

[Extract from a report by Consul Weber, of Monterey, published in 1880.]

The principal articles of importation from the United States on this frontier are machinery, agricultural implements, hardware, leaf-tobacco, coal-oil, printed and white cotton goods, some groceries, drugs, and perfumery, stationery, and glassware; but as long as American manufacturers, bankers, and commission merchants are not willing to extend to Mexican importers the same facilities and advantages as these are accustomed to obtain in England and Germany, it is very natural that the share of American trade will be comparatively small, and limited only to goods which they cannot find in European markets.

[Extract from a report by Consul Willard, of Guaymas.]

The irregular importations from Arizona across the border are estimated by the government officials in Sonora at $600,000, consisting principally of cotton and woolen goods, four-fifths of which are supposed to be smuggled; adding this amount to that introduced through Guaymas, makes a total of $787,000 of United States imports con-

sumed in Sonora. The Mexican Government have made and are making extra efforts to check or regulate this irregular traffic across the frontier; they have doubled the customs guard, which now numbers fifty mounted men, and have enacted stringent laws, adding imprisonment to the confiscation of the goods as the penalty of smuggling; yet this traffic continues. The frontier over which this illicit trade is carried on is about 250 miles in length, a rolling country of plains and small hills, passable at almost any point with wagons and pack trains.

The only remedy that can be applied to this evil, with fair hopes of success, is a reduction by the Mexican Government of the duties on cotton and woolen goods of American manufacture. With the present high tariff (calicoes paying about eight cents per yard and other articles in proportion), the facility with which American manufactured goods can be obtained in Arizona, now that the Southern Pacific Railroad is at or near Tucson, and this traffic in the hands of the natives of the country, who are well acquainted with the trails and wagon-roads along the whole frontier, there is but a poor prospect of a discontinuance of this irregular trade.

[Extract from a report by Consul Scott, of Chihuahua.]

The commercial business of the importers has been seriously affected by the constant smuggling which is carried on between the smaller towns in the mountain districts and the towns across the Rio Grande in the United States.

The merchants have petitioned for a reduction of the duties on a few of the leading staples, believing it to be the most effectual mode of preventing smuggling, and in fact increasing the revenues of the government from the custom-houses.

But the authorities at the city of Mexico have not as yet intimated that they would make the concession asked. The greater portion of the merchandise imported from Europe comes in bond via Galveston and San Antonio, and from thence in wagon-trains to this city, making Texas a free highway for European competition against American goods; notwithstanding which American goods are coming daily into greater favor, and will be purchased more freely as the railroads are completed to the border, giving quick transit to both shipments of merchandise and return shipments of bullion, which will in a great measure counterbalance the long time given by European houses to their correspondents here.

[Extract from a report by Consul General Strother, of Mexico City.]

It is gratifying to observe that in spite of political disorders, of a tariff ill-advised and difficult of comprehension, of a vexatious and irregular system of collection, of the subtle and persistent opposition of long-established and powerful European houses, that the superiority of our American manufactures is beginning to be very generally recognized, and that they are gradually but decidedly superseding the European articles of the same character which have hitherto monopolized the market. Indeed, I have been assured by responsible persons that this superiority is so well understood that European houses, to maintain their trade, are obliged to exhibit a stock of American goods, and sometimes resort to the expedient of selling their own manufactures with American labels.

The number of American importing houses in this city is exceedingly limited, notwithstanding the prospect of a rapidly-increasing trade with the United States, especially in cotton manufactures, agricultural and mining machinery, ironmongery of all kinds, hardware, glass, stationery, printing-presses and inks, and many kinds of fancy goods. Considerable orders have already been filled for the cheaper classes of cotton goods, but it would appear that to extend this particular branch of business a thorough investigation should be made by competent persons to ascertain the exact wants and, above all, the tastes of this market, and rather soliciting from here samples of the colors, patterns, and qualities preferred than of sending articles from the United States that are often unsalable. Groceries of kinds, canned meats and fish, candles and crackers, are goods that meet with a steady consumption.

One of the difficulties that has presented itself to a larger trade from the American merchants and manufacturers is the system that has been established here for many years, of giving long credits, generally from six to twelve months, especially to the traders and storekeepers of the interior. The buyers are accustomed to this system, and one of the arguments in their favor is the lack of facilities for remitting funds to the capital of the republic and to the ports. The currency throughout the country is silver, which can only be safely transported by means of "*conductas*," or wagon and mule trains, escorted by government troops, from considerable distances, such as Guanajuato, Morelia, Guadalajara, Zacatecas, and San Luis Potosi, and these "*conductas*" have no stated time of departure, therefore merchants have to await their arrival at periods varying from three to six months. The wholesale foreign merchants here know their customers tolerably well, and are not afraid to trust them, as I am informed that, taking it as a general rule, punctuality in payment at the time stipulated can almost always be depended on.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

The exports of British cottons to Central America during the year 1880, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn and twist ..... pounds..	549, 600	$141, 000
Piece goods, plain ..... yards..	19, 515, 000	1, 020, 000
Piece goods, printed ..... do	11, 961, 600	855, 000
Total piece goods ..... do	31, 476, 600	1, 875, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	14, 000
Hosiery	.....	15, 000
Sewing thread	.....	92, 000
All other cottons	.....	24, 000
Total exports	.....	2, 161, 000

As compared to the exports during the year 1879, the foregoing shows a decrease of about $120,000, principally in piece goods.

The exports of cotton goods from France to Central America are insignificant, amounting in all to only about $25,000, the greater portion being goods in transit through France.

The exports of cottons from the United States to Central America during the fiscal year 1880, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	456, 250	$36, 250
Piece goods, printed	392, 274	28, 322
All other sorts	.....	13, 164
Total	848, 524	77, 736

The average price per yard of the cotton goods consumed in Central America, according to the foregoing valuation, was as follows: British: yarn, 25.32 cents (per pound); plain piece goods, 5.23 cents; printed piece goods, 7.15 cents. American: piece goods, plain, 6.89 cents; piece goods, printed, 7.14 cents.

In regard to the prospects for enlarging our cotton goods trade in Central America, the following extract is submitted from a report written in 1877 by the then United States Minister resident at Guatemala, premising the same by stating that nothing has occurred since that time to alter the conditions under which our trade with those States may be increased:

There are many articles consumed in these countries which might be manufactured by our countrymen and supplied at good profits, but to enumerate them in detail would be too tedious, *and I shall only say that it seems to me we ought to be able to supply these people in a few years with nearly every article that is made of cotton, or into whose manufacture that staple largely enters.* The same remark is applicable to furniture, machinery, agricultural implements, pumps of different kinds, and other products of our iron industries. As it would consume too much of your time for me to go into details on this branch of the subject, I will say that I shall be happy to answer questions our merchants and manufacturers may address me, or put them in correspondence with reliable houses here that are strongly inclined to cultivate trade relations with the United States.

An interesting report on the cotton-goods trade of Guatemala, by Consul Medina, the only report received from Central America, will be found in its proper place, herewith.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF BRITISH HONDURAS.

The exports of British cotton goods to British Honduras, during the year 1880, amounted to $209,000, a decrease of $44,000 in five years.

The exports of cotton goods from the United States to British Honduras, during the fiscal year 1880, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	446,096	$36,482
Piece goods, printed	393,499	26,595
All other cottons	.....	3,716
Total	839,595	66,793

Comparatively small as was our trade with British Honduras in 1880, it was greater by $24,000 than that of the preceding year.

Having received no recent reports from British Honduras, it is impossible to give any more definite details of the present condition or wants of the market, but from the following extract from a report written by the United States Consul at Belize, in 1877, it is safe to conclude that the outlook for an increased American cotton goods trade is promising:

American cottons are commencing to attract attention here, and I am satisfied the current year will show a handsome traffic in these goods. For some time past customers from outside of the colony, notably from the Mosquito coast, who bring to Belize rubber, hides, &c., which they exchange here for dry goods, provisions, liquors, &c., have shown a most decided preference for American cotton goods, and now they will take none other when the American can be had.

British Honduras depends entirely upon the United States for its breadstuffs and provisions, and such agricultural implements as are used here are mostly imported from the United States. As the colony becomes developed, the trade between the two countries must naturally increase.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE WEST INDIES.

The exports of British cotton goods to the West Indies during the year 1880 were as follows:

TO THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	20,803,400	$1,293,000
Piece goods, printed	25,067,000	1,735,000
Piece goods, mixed	621,400	92,000
Total piece goods	46,491,800	3,120,000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	19,000
Hosiery: stockings and socks	.....	53,000
Other	.....	43,000
Sewing thread	.....	97,000
All other cotton goods	.....	68,000
Total	.....	3,400,000

TO THE WEST INDIES, NOT BRITISH.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	30, 848, 000	$2, 211, 000
Piece goods, printed	44, 928, 900	3, 363, 000
Piece goods, mixed	1, 919, 900	209, 000
Total piece goods	77, 696, 800	5, 783, 000
Lace and patent net goods		34, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings		39, 000
Sewing thread		204, 000
All other cottons		122, 000
Total		6, 102, 00

RECAPITULATION.

Total exports of British cottons to the West Indies, British and foreign.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	51, 651, 400	$3, 504, 000
Piece goods, printed	69, 995, 900	5, 098, 000
Piece goods, mixed	2, 541, 300	301, 000
Total piece goods	124, 188, 600	8, 903, 000
Lace and patent net goods		53, 000
Hosiery: stockings and socks		53, 000
Other		82, 000
Sewing thread		301, 000
All other cotton goods		190, 000
Grand total		9, 582, 000

Deduct from the foregoing the value of cottons exported to British Guiana, which is included therein, viz, 670,000, and we find the net value of the exports of British cottons to the West Indies during the year 1880 to have been $8,912,000.

According to the latest official returns at hand, the exports of cottons from France to the West Indies were as follows:

Whither exported.	French cottons.	French and foreign cottons.
San Domingo	$29 000	$92 000
St. Thomas	100 000	243 000
Cuba and Porto Rico	132 000	155 000
Martinique	68 000	431 000
Guadeloupe	60 000	300 000
Total	389 000	1, 221 000

The exports of American cotton goods to the West Indies during the fiscal year 1880 were as follows:

Whither exported.	Value.
Danish West Indies	$32, 322
French West Indies	7, 946
British West Indies	131, 734
Dutch West Indies	58, 956
San Domingo	165, 205
Hayti	450, 756
Cuba	90, 693
Porto Rico	19, 290
Total	956, 802

The description of American goods exported to the West Indies, as above, was as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods printed	3,958,993	$420,570
Piece goods plain	5,341,143	464,014
All other	.....	72,218
Total	9,300,136	956,802

It will be seen by the foregoing statements that the sales of British cotton manufactures are in quantity a little over 13 yards for every 1 yard of American goods, and in value $10 to $1 of American. This not only shows the preponderance of British trade, but it also shows the great difference in the price of the manufactures of both countries.

The average price per yard of British and American cottons consumed in the West Indies is as follows:

British goods.—British West Indies: plain piece goods, 6.23 cents; printed piece goods, 6.72 cents. Foreign West Indies: piece goods, plain, 7.16 cents; piece goods, printed, 7.49 cents. Average for all West Indies: piece goods, plain, 6.72 cents; piece goods, printed, 7.28 cents.

American goods.—Printed piece goods, 10.63 cents; plain piece goods, 8.68 cents.

The total foreign trade of the West Indies, according to the latest official compilations, is given as follows: Imports, $133,000,000; exports, $177,000,000.

The relative shares of Great Britain and the United States in this general trade may be set down as follows:

Exports from Great Britain to the West Indies, $29,120,000, distributed as follows: To British West Indies, $11,916,000; to foreign West Indies, $17,204,000.

Exports from the United States to the West Indies, $26,298,000, distributed as follows: To British West Indies, $7,068,000; to West Indies not British, $19,230,000.

Imports into Great Britain from the West Indies, $31,460,000, of which her own colonies contribute $21,600,000.

Imports into the United States from the West Indies, $85,880,000, of which the British West Indies contribute $5,482,000, or $1,586,000 less than our sales thereto. Our imports from the Spanish West Indies are as follows: From Cuba, $65,423,000; from Porto Rico, $5,444,000; a total of $70,867,000. Our sales to the Spanish West Indies amount to only $12,894,000.

The foregoing statistics are for the year 1880—the calendar year for the British and the fiscal year for the American—and on comparison with the preceding year we find the following results: The British exports show an increase of $1,709,000, and the British imports a decrease of $6,584,000. On the other hand, the American exports to the West Indies show a decrease of $2,845,000, while our imports therefrom show an increase of $7,328,000.

During the year 1880 Great Britain sold to the West Indies goods to the value of $2,822,000 more than was sold thereto by the United States, while our purchases therefrom were nearly two and a half times those of Great Britain.

Considering the position of the West Indies—lying at our very doors—and considering the further fact that a growing desire for closer com-

mercial relations with the United States exists in nearly every colony of the Antilles, there is no doubt but that a great portion of this trade, which is now supplied by European manufacturers, could be secured by our exporters were the necessary means taken toward that end.

In regard to the present condition of our trade in the West Indies, the following extracts will be found of interest to our cotton manufacturers, for it is safe to say that wherever there is an opening for American trade in general there is also a field for the sale of cottons.

AMERICAN DRY GOODS TRADE IN THE BAHAMAS.

[From a report by Consul McLain.]

In the matter of dry goods there is also room for improvement in American trade. As dry goods are classified at the custom-house with many other articles which pay an ad valorem duty of 20 per cent., it is difficult to decide just what proportion of the trade goes to the United States. We undoubtedly have a fair share of the trade, but we should have much more. A moderate quantity of cotton prints, denims, sheetings, tickings, cottonades, drills, shirts, corsets, and numerous small wares in the notion line, are bought in the United States; but I judge that more than half the cotton, woolen, linen, and silk goods, as well as umbrellas, gloves, flowers, feathers, lace and fancy goods, haberdashery, felt and straw hats, &c., came from England during the past year. In fact, I do not think the amount of these goods bought in the States, during 1880, was equal to the purchases of either 1877, 1878, or 1879. I am informed by merchants here that during the former years various staple goods could be bought in the States at prices as low as English fabrics of the same description were sold for, and that at that time the trade began to be brisk with the States, and our goods were favorably received. But during the last year prices have materially advanced in the United States, so that English manufacturers are again selling goods to the Bahamas.

Some of the merchants here complain of what they style the "instability of the American market" for such goods; that is, the fluctuation of prices are so frequent, and often so marked, that they are never sure what certain lines of goods are going to cost them. In the English markets the prices remain very steady the year through, British manufacturers not being so ready to advance prices, nor upon such a slight pretext, as are the American dealers. Hence, the merchants say they cannot safely depend on the American markets; for their own customers expect to buy the same article at nearly the same price every month in the year, and the dealers can meet these views only by purchasing where the markets are the steadiest.

In view of these facts, it seems apparent that with proper care and energy the dealers and manufacturers in the United States may largely increase their trade with the Bahamas. They must acquaint themselves with the wants and tastes of the people of the colony; then they must furnish goods that are equal in quality to those sent from England; and finally they must be able to compete fairly in prices with the British manufacturers. In estimating the prices which they can give dealers here, they will find that they have several things in their favor over the British dealer. Freight is in favor of the United States, though not so much as it should be. Exchange is decidedly in our favor. Distance and time are largely with us. If with these things to discriminate in our favor we cannot secure the entire trade of the Bahamas, it would seem as if we did not deserve it.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH BERMUDA.

[From a report by Consul Allen.]

Steam communication with New York has undoubtedly added much to the prosperity of the colony by stimulating agriculture.

Although more than three-fourths of the whole exports of the colony are made to the United States, amounting to $232,826 for the past year, the imports therefrom during the same period of time amount to $727,134, showing a balance in favor of the United States of $464,227.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH TURK'S ISLAND.

[From a report by Consul Van Wyck.]

The American steamer Santo Domingo continues to make her regular trips every fifth week to this port and to the ports of San Domingo. This is the only steamer touching regularly at these islands, and is a great benefit to all parties doing business

in this colony, and is the direct means of largely increasing importations from our markets. They find that their orders can be filled promptly instead of waiting four months for goods from British markets, as was formerly the case; and I will here venture to repeat the remark in a former dispatch, "that I fully believe our exporters can in the future (by carefully studying the necessities of this market) control from 80 to 90 per cent. of all goods imported into this colony," provided the consular officer resident here is conversant with mercantile interests and business to impart all needed information.

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS IN JAMAICA.

[From a report by Consular Agent Nunes, of Falmouth.]

I must not omit reference to the gradually increasing importation of manufactures of cloth goods and iron-ware, pumps, and other machinery from the United States, which in almost all instances excel and surpass the quality of what we had previously been accustomed to procure from the European market, and there is no doubt that a steadily growing business in that respect has now been fairly established and rendered secure and reliable.

[From a report by Consular Agent Corinaldo, of Montego Bay.]

Of American manufactures in cotton and other goods, printed cottons and piqués have been introduced by the firm of which I am a member, and outrival the goods of the same class of British manufacture in durability and cheapness. It is very probable that a good trade might be opened up in domestics and calicoes; but I must again say that the field is limited. The population of this district is under 30,000, but its central position makes it available to as many more.

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS IN HAYTI.

[From a report by Consul-General Langston.]

American imports, consisting principally of pork, flour, soap, tobacco, hams, fish, butter, lard, cheese, beer, porter, potatoes, apples, ice, and sugar: lumber, shingles, and tar; hardware, nails, guns, coal, and ammunitions; brooms, tubs, willow-ware, glassware, crockery, bricks, building materials, and furniture; dry goods, such as denims of all sorts, materials for pantaloons, shirting, straw hats, ready-made clothing for men and boys, and shoes of all sizes; carriages, horses, hay, oats, harness, wagons, and corn, have, during the past year, not only held the ground heretofore gained, but advanced in popular appreciation. *Indeed, the demand for American denims at present in this country cannot be supplied.* Our plain white shirting stands well, too, and is gaining a firm footing in the market. *If our prints in pattern, as they do in texture and quality, suited the people of the country they would also sell well.*

It is estimated that from 150 to 200 bales of American blue denims, containing 625 yards each, are imported into this city alone (Port-au-Prince) per month, and that for the same time there are imported 50 cases of white calico, of 1,000 yards each.

HOW TO ENLARGE AMERICAN TRADE IN HAYTI.

[From a report by Consul Goutier, of Cape Haytien.]

Three years ago, when the price of raw material as well as that of manufactured articles was so low, when the prevailing stagnation of business, the depression of prices, and an overstocked market allowed the United States to compete with England, France, and Germany, and in many instances undersell them, considerable cotton goods were imported here. If the low prices had continued we would, in a few years, have had the monopoly of the dry goods as well as the provision trade of this country. But prices advanced and we can no longer compete with the principal manufacturing nations of Europe on account of the unrequited labor of their operatives. It is not to be expected that our intelligent, educated, superior, and well-remunerated artisans can be reduced to the level of their European brothers. It is only by the superiority of our fabrics that we can expect to maintain a foothold in spite of the low prices of British goods. But something further remains to be done. Let competent persons be sent out to see what kind of goods suits this market, and the method of packing these goods; likewise, if other patterns could not be introduced. They would be able to judge whether the white cotton goods sent from the United States are not too fine, consequently too expensive; whether something between that and the common sort, heavily sized to hide its inferiority, which is received from Europe, could not be advantageously introduced into this country.

Let merchants and manufacturers send only such goods as have been ordered, and

not attempt to rid themselves of their unsalable merchandise. A merchant in this city after having been advised that he could be furnished with certain goods as per sample sent, ordered ten bales. Upon arrival he found that the merchandise was not at all like the sample. This merchant had been in the habit of sending to Europe for his goods, and expressed regret that he had not done so in this instance instead of sending to the United States.

AMERICAN TRADE IN PORTO RICO.

[Report by Consul Conroy, of San Juan.]

Spain ranks the largest shipper to this island, the value of her shipments being $3,448,838, consisting chiefly of provisions, and a small proportion of common machinery and manufactured goods for clothing purposes. Great Britain is reported next, with shipments of manufactured linen, cotton, silk, machinery for sugar plantations, and sundry manufactures, to the value of $2,538,716. Next to Great Britain comes the United States, with imports to the amount of $2,538,716.21, consisting mostly of provisions, lumber, hardware, glassware, cooper-stuffs, and drugs. No cloth manufactures or machinery worth mentioning were shipped to this island from the United States. This unsatisfactory result for American trade I attribute rather to a higher cost of the American manufactures or better facilities for the payment of British goods than to any other consideration against American enterprise.

[From a report by Consular Agent Ritter, of Fajardo.]

As regards direct imports into our district they have greatly augmented during past year, notwithstanding the precarious financial position of the island, amounting to $43,355.95 against $26,623.62 during 1877-'78, and specially from the United States with $22,634.95 during last year against $7,513.62 the same period, 1877 to 1878, and I expect that this improvement will continue, as our merchants are getting alive to the advantages of direct imports from the United States, and prompt and easy communications are daily augmenting.

AMERICAN *vs.* EUROPEAN TRADE IN CUBA.

[From a report by Consul Roosevelt, of Matanzas.]

Until within a few years the requirements of the people in Cuba were generally met by the importation of goods of English make. Spain supplied some articles, and France gave her perfumery and *objets de vertu*. American goods were nowhere to be found; both wholesale and retail dealers were in profound ignorance of the fact that almost at their doors they had a producer of everything which the extended and varied wants of civilized life made necessary. The English and Germans here took good care to decry all American manufactures, and as the Spaniard is above all else a creature of custom and habit, preferring to follow in the course established by his ancestors, they found it no difficult task to continue the monopoly that existed. Circumstances seemed also to favor them. The inflation of prices in the United States produced by the war made it impossible to compete with the English in offering goods of any kind. The establishment of lines of Spanish steamers between Havana and Liverpool permitted the importation of merchandise at low rates of freight and at lower duties than could be done with American articles. The higher price of cost and the greater expenses attending the importation operated as an effective bar to American trade in the way of imports. The consequence was that our exports to Cuba rarely passed $15,000,000 per year, while our imports frequently exceed $80,000,000; and the anomaly was presented of merchants going across the Atlantic, over 3,000 miles away, to get stock which they could readily obtain in New York, only one-third of the distance. These causes still operate to lessen trade, and Europe still supplies Cuba with the bulk of her imports. There seems, however, to be more effort and willingness to draw from the United States, and it is not uncommon now to find American shoes and calicoes, and even Yankee notions. Certain articles of food have always been imported from the United States, such as lard, beans, bacon, hams, &c.: of these the United States are the exclusive exporters. Some flour and butter are also brought; live stock for consumption and breeding; machinery, locomotives, lumber, a few agricultural implements, all kinds of cooperage, and a little coal. The smaller articles comprised in a hardwareman's stock are, however, almost exclusively brought from England, so also with the clothing and dry goods stores. Some American calicoes (or percales), occasionally cotton shirting, &c., are found, but they are not common. The retail dealers admit the good quality of American prints, but frankly say that they cannot bring them here as long as the cost is greater than those of England.

AMERICAN PRODUCTIONS MOST IN DEMAND IN CUBA.

Agricultural implements.—Plows, cultivators, rakes, hoes, forks, coffee-cleaners, machetes or cane knives, sausage-meat cutters, bagazo spreaders, sugar-mills, portable railroads, sheep-shearers, corn-shellers, spades, and shovels.

Sugar-machines.—Mills, centrifugal apparatus, vacuum pans, stampers for hogsheads and box sugars, fire-brick.

Glassware.—Lamps for petroleum; goblets, tumblers, lightning-rod insulators, glass tubes, vases, and window panes.

Domestic utensils.—All sorts of hardware, such as pots, pans, cups, stoves, coffee and tea pots, sieves, mortars and pestles, &c.; crockery, tubes, buckets, dippers, coffee and pepper mills.

Cutlery.—Knives, forks, spoons, carving knives, and potato knives.

Hardware.—All sorts of carpenters' and builders' tools, planing-machines, molding-machines, machinery for making windows and shutters, hand drills or foot-power drills, turning and mortising machines, band saws, hand saws, chisels, scroll saws of the large kind, carving instruments, &c.; paints, especially fire-proof paints, putty, lubricating and paint oils.

Clothing.—Shirting, calicoes, lighter classes of woolen goods; shoes if made according to the Cuban pattern—sharp-points, high instep, and narrow; buttons, thread, linings, &c.

Soaps.—The cheaper sorts, and small importations of fine.

Stationery of all sorts.

Locomotives and all sorts of railroad supplies.

Sewing-machines, hand and treadle.

SOUTH AMERICA.

COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES OF COLOMBIA.

The exports of British cottons to the United States of Colombia during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Cotton goods, plain	20,662,900	$1,196,000
Cotton goods, printed	25,645,900	1,725,000
Total piece goods	46,308,800	2,921,000
Lace and patent net goods		34,000
Hosiery		29,000
Sewing thread		87,000
All other cotton goods		92,000
Total exports		3,163,000

The exports of cotton goods from France to the United States of Colombia amount to about $600,000 per annum, of which French goods proper amount to only $133,000, the remainder being composed of goods in transit through France.

The exports of American cottons during the fiscal year 1880 to Colombia were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	1,980,254	$172,482
Printed piece goods	5,613,391	380,306
All other cottons		33,904
Total exports	7,593,645	586,692

The average price per yard of British and American cottons shipped to Colombia as above was as follows:

British.—Plain piece goods, 5.78 cents; printed piece goods, 6.75 cents.

American.—Piece goods, plain, 8.79 cents; piece goods, printed, 6.77 cents.

In regard to the prospects for an increased trade in American cotton manufactures, as well as for our American manufactures in general, extracts from consular reports which will be found interesting and valuable to our exporters are submitted.

AMERICAN TRADE IN PANAMA.

[From a report by Consul Thorington.]

The population of the port proper is only some 3,000; at the same time there is quite an extensive business carried on, the imports being estimated at about $800,000, and the exports at $500,000 per annum. Almost everything used now, with the exception of liquors and cigars, is received from the United States, whereas a few years ago we furnished but little of anything, and cotton goods of our manufacture could only be sold under an English brand.

EUROPEAN *vs.* AMERICAN TRADE IN CARTHAGENA.

[From a report by Consul Smith.]

At present the Germans and English control the trade of this district, which fact is partly due to the ignorance of the Colombians as to the extent and variety of our manufactures and products. Then again, the Germans and English give long systems of credit, from six to twelve months. Last year Manchester sold to the merchants of this place nearly $100,000 worth of print goods, while the United States exported to this port not $100 worth of similar goods. Such a state of affairs would not exist if our manufacturers of prints and dry goods would but cut the goods into the standard length of this country—30 yards—and pack them properly. The proper style of packing is this: The dry goods and prints should be compactly pressed into bales of 125 pounds each, gross weight, as the only means of land transportation is on the backs of mules. These animals carry 250 pounds' weight, 125 pounds on each side. The first covering of the bale must be of strong sheeting, then comes a covering of oil cloth, and finally over all such as coffee sacks are made of. This being done, put the bale into a press, and then bind with iron hoops. The climate, especially along the coast lands, is very moist, and the bales have to bear frequent handling.

There is a good demand for most of the staple productions of our country. A general assortment of small tools, hardware, &c., would readily sell. The butter that is exported from the United States to this port is not, in the judgment of many, of the best quality. The butter put up in France brings readily $1 per pound, while American is worth but 60 cents. The rice machines imported from the United States do not as yet give entire satisfaction. Great numbers of these machines could be sold. There is but little demand for agricultural implements and machinery. White and pitch pine lumber is worth from $50 to $60 per thousand feet. There is, comparatively speaking, however, not much of it used here.

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE.

[From a report by Consul Pellet, of Sabanilla.]

The healthy tone of resumption in the United States is beginning to be felt here; and if our merchants and manufacturers do not improve this opportunity and appropriate to themselves the trade of this coast the fault will be their own. The people here are disposed to deal with the Americans rather than European manufacturers; but our manufacturers stand aloof, and the consequence is that the European steps in and carries off the prize.

It seems almost amazing, but it is true, that while European houses have representatives constantly in the country sampling their wares, but two Americans have followed their example during the year. If our people wish their shoes, prints, cottons, hardware, fancy goods, household furniture, novelties, inventions, and the thousand minor articles disseminated throughout Colombia they must bring them to the direct notice of the public, show their superiority over European wares, compare prices, &c. Until this is done the old channel will carry its current uninterruptedly eastward, and American trade must suffer.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF VENEZUELA.

The exports of British cottons to Venezuela during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	8,727,900	$491,000
Piece goods, printed	13,363,300	885,000
Total piece goods	22,091,200	1,376,000
Sewing thread		73,000
Total exports		1,449,000

The exports of cotton goods from France to Venezuela amount to about $360,000 per annum, nearly all of which, however, being goods in transit through France, from other countries.

The exports of American cottons to Venezuela during the fiscal year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	766,129	$72,614
Piece goods, printed	969,236	69,614
All other cotton goods		7,088
Total exports		149,316

This is, comparatively, a very meager showing for American cottons in Venezuela, and yet it shows an increase on the preceding year of nearly $60,000. British cotton exports, on the contrary, although still very large in comparison with ours, have fallen off from $2,400,000 in 1875 to $1,449,000 in 1880.

On account of the unsystematic manner in which commercial statistics are kept in Venezuela, it is almost impossible to secure enough of material from that source to compile a report upon the trade, special or general, of that country. The first commercial report showing the foreign trade of Venezuela received at this Department from any of our consuls was received from Commercial Agent Barnes, of La Guayra (now consul at Curaçoa), and will be found *in extenso* in No. 5 of Consular Reports, May, 1881. Even this report, owing to the reason above mentioned, while singularly full and interesting in all its other parts, gives the tabular statements of the general foreign trade no later than for the year 1877, although some special statistics for 1879 and 1880 are given.

In the tabulated statement showing the imports for the fiscal year 1876, Consul Barnes shows that cotton goods figured to the amount of $3,686,581, and further, he shows that for the six months ending December 31, 1877, cotton goods were imported to the value of $2,171,743. The mixed goods, cotton and silk, cotton and wool, and cotton and linen, are not included in this estimate. If the present cotton-goods trade of Venezuela is as large as that of three and four years ago, it follows that Ger-

man cotton goods must largely enter thereinto in order to complete its volume after the shares taken by England, France, and the United States are taken into account.

It is to be regretted that Consul Barnes, in his very interesting report above referred to, has given no further statistics concerning the cotton-goods trade of Venezuela than those quoted.

That this must be, comparatively, a good field for American cottons, is very apparent from the following extract from a British report published in 1878, showing the trade of Venezuela for the year 1877.

Although the imports into Venezuela from England exceed those from any other country to an amount much more considerable than that set down under the head of England, since a large portion of the goods set down to Germany consist of English goods shipped from Hamburg, it is a subject for conjecture whether the efforts of United States manufacturers, demonstrated by the arrival of several energetic agents and a profuse circulation of samples, may not, at no very distant period, diminish in Venezuela, as perhaps elsewhere, the pre-eminence hitherto enjoyed by English manufacturers—even in regard to cotton fabrics and other articles hitherto almost universally supplied from England. Indeed, as I am informed by competent persons, a large demand has already been created for brown and white cotton shirtings, T-cloths, madapolams, brown and colored cotton drills, &c., of United States manufacture. Brown and white shirtings of that manufacture are very generally esteemed superior to those of English manufacture, since, according to very general supposition, no admixture of superior with inferior qualities of the raw material, such as is carried on in England, need be carried on in the United States, where inferior qualities are rarely produced. Printed goods of United States manufacture, as I am informed, are still considered in Venezuela generally to be inferior to those of English in point of style and of the taste displayed in regard to patterns and colors; but the assimilation to a French standard, in this respect, reported here to be assiduously aimed at in the United States, may speedily cause a revulsion of ideas.

TRADE OF CIUDAD BOLIVAR WITH THE UNITED STATES.

[From a report by Consul Dalton.]

In regard to the total amount of imports from the United States, it is almost impossible to obtain the correct figures, although New York is the only port from which the introductions are made, but it can be safely asserted that the value of imports do not fall short of $500,000 per annum. They chiefly consist in mining machinery and supplies, breadstuffs, and general American provisions. About double that amount is annually imported from Europe, through the British island of Trinidad, in all kinds of dry goods and other articles of English, French, German, Spanish, and Italian manufacture. This trade is steadily on the increase, owing to the regular steam communication carried on between this port and that island with American-built boats, by which the line was established in 1869, and which still continue to ply for account of an American company. The imports from the United States over Trinidad are not of much consideration, and may be safely estimated at $50,000 for the last year.

TRADE OF MARACAIBO.

[From a report by Consul Plumacher.]

The imports consist mainly of dry goods, mostly imported from Europe. If American manufacturers would adapt their "*modus operandi*" to that of the European merchants in trading with this country, there is no doubt that the dry-goods trade would soon be under our control. We further import sugar, rice, and many articles for household use, but chiefly from England. Petroleum and flour are imported from the United States, but the latter is generally of the most inferior quality. Most of the cutlery goods are imported from England and Germany. Furniture and canned goods from the United States have of late made their appearance, and a great trade could be opened if some [illegible] were brought in the market.

France [illegible] most of the wines and brandies; Spain also sends an enormous quantity of Malaga wine to this port, which chiefly goes to the interior. The import duties on wines having been greatly reduced, good profits might be realized with the wines and brandies of California if our merchants a house would pay some attention to this trade. During the last month coal for the use of the steamers has been imported from the United States in small quantities, but has given [illegible] returns.

COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE GUIANAS.

BRITISH GUIANA.

Although the colonial published statistics omit all mention of the imports of cotton manufactures into British Guiana, the British returns for 1880 show that cotton piece goods to the amount 8,409,000 yards, valued at $588,000, and all other cottons to the value of $81,000, were exported thither during that year. In addition to this export of British goods, there were also exported for England to the colony foreign cottons to the value of about $11,000, making a total export of $680,000.

The French official returns make no mention of any exports of cotton goods from France to British Guiana.

The exports of American cottons to British Guiana during the fiscal year 1880 consisted of 67,689 yards of printed piece goods, valued at $4,402; piece goods, plain, 53,299 yards, valued at $7,029; and all other manufactures to the value of $1,457; total exports $12,888.

The total exports from the United States to British Guiana during the fiscal year 1880 amounted to $1,723,000, of which $974,000 worth was carried in American bottoms. Our imports from British Guiana during the same year amounted to $1,910,000, of which only $400,000 worth was brought in American vessels.

A report from Consul Figyelmesy, of Demerara, noting the class of goods consumed in British Guiana, will be found in its proper place herewith.

DUTCH GUIANA.

The exports of British cottons to Dutch Guiana during the year 1880 amounted to 1,203,100 yards of piece goods, valued at $92,000; from Holland, $21,000, and from the United States, $1,000.

The total trade of Dutch Guiana, imports and exports, amounts to nearly $3,000,000. The United States contributes to this trade to the extent of $540,000; imports therefrom, $284,000; exports thereto, $256,000. Small as is the general trade in cotton manufactures there is certainly room for considerable expansion of our trade therein.

FRENCH GUIANA.

The total trade of French Guiana, imports and exports, is estimated at $3,000,000, divided as follows: imports, $1,730,000; exports $1,270,000.

The imports consist principally of wines and liquors, jewelry, *cotton goods*, rice, beer, biscuit, cattle, butter, candles, chairs, cheese, coffee, confectionery, glass and pottery wares, drugs, flour, fruits and vegetables, hardware, lard, wearing apparel, boots and shoes, perfumery, petroleum, preserved meats, vegetables and fish, salted meats, hams, fish, soap, sugars, stationery, and tobacco.

The greater portions of the exports consist of native gold, after which come spices, sugar, hides, and rum.

Of the exports from the several countries to French Guiana, France ranks first, supplying the colony with goods to the value of $1,270,000, the greater portion of which are French products and manufactures.

The exports from Great Britain amount to only about $22,000, while there are no imports therefrom into Great Britain.

The exports from the United States to French Guiana amount to $76,000, while the imports into the United States therefrom amounted to only $3,272 during the fiscal year 1880.

In regard to the cotton-goods trade of French Guiana, the exports from France amount to about $95,000, the greater portion of which is made up of foreign manufactures in transit through France; the exports from England during the year 1880 consisted of 272,200 yards of piece goods, valued at $17,800, leaving only $4,200 for all other British goods, while the exports from the United States during the fiscal year 1880 consisted of 5,532 yards of plain piece goods, valued at $378.

Not having any Consular reports at hand concerning the state of American trade in French Guiana, or its prospects of development, no further particulars in regard thereto can be given. The British Consul at Cayenne, a few years ago, referred as follows, in a report to his government, to an effort made for the enlargement of American trade in French Guiana:

A new commercial company for importing goods, called the United Commercial Guiana Company, has been organized at Cayenne, the object being not only to make a fair profit by the trade, but, which is of greater consequence to the inhabitants, to cause the traders in whose hands the present import trade is to reduce their exorbitant prices on all imported goods, most articles of consumption, except manufactured articles. This company is supplied from the United States.

Had this or a similar company included American cotton goods in their catalogue of imports, there would be a far larger showing in this regard than that given above.

While the cotton-goods trade of those foreign colonies in South America, the British, Dutch, and French Guianas, may not seem of much consequence to our manufacturers, the total aggregating not over $900,000, it should be borne in mind that in our efforts for the enlargement of our trade in that portion of the continent there is no place so insignificant as to be unworthy of consideration in building up an enlarged commerce.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF BRAZIL.

In transmitting his annual report on the commercial relations of the United States with foreign countries, May 1, 1880, to Congress, Secretary Evarts referred to the importance of securing a controlling influence in the foreign trade of Brazil in the following manner:

On account of the volume of its trade, as well as on account of its geographical position, the countries which control the foreign trade of Brazil will be almost certain of exercising a controlling influence in the trade of the other states of South America. For these reasons, England, France, and Germany have long and persistently applied themselves to the securing of a permanent lodgment in Brazil. To this end they have brought to bear on that market fine business abilities, large capital, a spirit which accommodated itself to the wishes and wants of the people, and, above all, direct and frequent steam communication.

During all those years in which Europe has been building up its commerce with Brazil and sweeping the entire coast of South America with magnificent fleets of steamships, the United States looked passively on, being, seemingly, content with the purchase of Brazilian coffee—which Europe did not want, finding the coffee of other portions of the world more suitable to her taste and more profitable to her commerce—and supplying Brazil with flour and a few other articles, crude, or partly crude, which no other country could supply. Step by step have England, France, and Germany attained their present controlling position in Brazilian trade, and it may be safely assumed that a division of this trade in our favor can only be secured by the application of superior business qualifications and facilities. Our merchants cannot expect to dislodge Europe from Brazil in a day or in a year. The establishment of our trade in manufactures in that country means the division of its present trade—the transfer of so much of the trade now held by England, France, and Germany to the United States.

The foregoing extract applies in a most emphatic manner to the cotton-goods trade of Brazil, which is at present almost entirely controlled by European merchants and manufacturers. To enlarge our trade therein —which means taking so much trade out of European hands—we must at least use the same persistent and comprehensive business methods, furnish as good manufactures at as low rates, accommodate ourselves to the tastes and demands of the consumers, and sell on equally favorable terms.

Consul-General Adamson, in a published report, estimates the imports of cotton goods imported at Rio de Janeiro during the year 1878 about $11,000,000. As the consul-general, in the same report, estimates the imports at Rio as amounting to about one-half the total imports into the empire, the total imports of cotton goods into Brazil, therefore, amounted during that year to nearly $22,000,000.

Exports of British cotton goods to Brazil during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn and twist ..... pounds..	711, 300	$ 165, 000
Piece goods, plain ..... yards..	104, 858, 300	5, 929, 000
Piece goods, printed ..... do....	125, 617, 000	9, 547, 000
Piece goods, mixed ..... do....	2, 635, 600	311, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	233, 115, 200	15, 787, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	136, 000
Hosiery:		
Stockings and socks	.....	39, 000
Other sorts	.....	122, 000
Sewing-thread	.....	807, 000
All other cottons	.....	126, 000
Total British exports	.....	17, 182, 000

The exports of cotton goods from France to Brazil, according to the latest official returns, amount to $751,000, of which less than one-half represents French manufactures, the remainder being goods in transit through France.

Exports of American cotton to Brazil during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value
Piece goods, plain ..... Yards..	3, 053, 706	$307, 555
Piece goods, printed ..... do....	3, 659, 991	355, 318
All other sorts	.....	24, 650
Total	6, 713, 697	687, 523

It is seen by the foregoing statement that the exports of British piece goods to Brazil are somewhat over 33 yards to 1, and as $27 to $1 of American.

The average price of British and American cottons exported to Brazil was as follows, per yard: British: piece goods, plain, 5.65 cents; piece goods, printed, 7.52 cents. American: piece goods, plain, 10 cents; piece goods, printed, 9.7 cents.

It thus appears that, while the printed cottons are nearly the same per yard, our plain goods are nearly double the price of the British.

The imports of cotton goods from Germany are computed at $1,500,000, and from Belgium at $600,000.

Computing the total trade on Consul-General Adamson's estimate as before given, and assuming that the imports from all other countries than Great Britain have held their own since 1878—the British having increased $4,650,000 since that year—the imports of cotton goods into Brazil during the year 1880 must have amounted to at least $25,000,000.

In regard to the outlook for an increase of the trade in American cottons in Brazil, the peculiarities and the best methods of reaching that market, the following extracts are made from the reports which have been received at this Department within the last few years from our consuls in that country.

The following extract from a report of the consul at Bahia, and published in Commercial Relations for the year 1877, is doubtless as applicable to the cotton-goods trade of Bahia to-day as it was then.

AMERICAN COTTONS IN BAHIA.

A great effort has been made during the year to extend the trade in cotton goods at this port, and some of the prints sent out are good, suitable patterns, being fast in color and of a good cloth, but the trade in them (as I am informed) has been injured by their arriving here made up as seven-eighths goods, which have long since gone out of consumption. To sell in this market, it is necessary that the goods come out nine-eighths, in pieces of 29 to 30 inches in width, and the length never running more than 24 to 25 meters per piece. The width of the fold ought to be 10 inches. The cloth, as a general rule, is too heavy, and to pay less duties a much lighter though better one ought to be used—say what they call in England a Spanish or Mexican cloth.

The Madapolams and sheetings sent out are really too good for this market. They ought to come (as I am informed) in a cloth not counting more than 15 × 15 picks in a square of 5 millimeters. The pieces ought to be 29 to 30 inches wide, and each piece containing only 24 yards. The finish of the goods which have come out is quite suitable, being what is called the soft finish and not calendered.

The blue drills from the United States have for many years, from their superiority, commanded a decided preference in this market, but the trade in them has been completely overdone for some time back, owing to a number of outside speculators operating in them; the consequence is that many of the dry-goods merchants who used to import them and make handsome profits are finding it more to their interest to buy here on the spot from speculators. An inferior article of blue drills (an imitation of American) is imported into this mardet from England, which, being of lighter cloth, pays less duty and leaves a fair profit to the importer.

WANT OF AMERICAN HOUSES IN BAHIA.

It is unfortunate for the development of American commercial and manufacturing interests that there should be no American houses of business established in this port to introduce and exhibit the inventions and improvements in machinery and agricultural implements of the United States, and to bring more clearly under observation such productions of the United States as can be introduced here advantageously. Numerous articles of commerce, as also machinery, such as is used for factories, distilleries, and refineries, which are at present all received from England or France, could and should be furnished by the United States were suitable facilities of direct steam communication established and a proper degree of energy manifested.

The consul at Para, in a report written during the latter part of 1879, says:

There is also more or less jealousy exhibited toward Americans attempting to establish business here by other foreign merchants, British, German, Portuguese, &c.

The Portuguese have the most of the trade of Para, and they are by far the largest importers from the United States. But their importations are mostly breadstuffs, provisions, and groceries. It appears to me that there are many other kinds of merchandise produced in the United States—manufactures of cotton, hardware, cutlery, glassware, &c.—which could be sent here at a profit to the shipper, the receiver, and the consumer. There is a large quantity of this kind of goods in this market, of European manufacture, of very inferior quality; low in price, of course, but not cheap.

In my judgment, the true way to build up and increase American trade in Brazil is to establish commercial houses in the coast cities of the empire for the sale of our

products and manufactures, conducted by Americans of tried and sterling business capacity, backed by resolution and capital that shall make them succeed. Of course, the obstacles I have named disappear to a considerable extent when one becomes familiar with them, with a determination to conquer.

I am of opinion, that if the United States buys from $40,000,000 to $50,000,000 annually of the products of the empire, now that we have embarked in the export trade, in time a fair portion of that amount—three or four times $9,000,000 as at present—must be paid in American products other than coin or bullion, in spite of obstacles or opposition of whatever kind.

AMERICAN TRADE AT RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

[Report of Consul Frisbie, dated January 1, 1880.]

While the foregoing exhibit is really gratifying to the people of this province, the imports of goods, wares, and merchandise from the United States to this port of Brazil must be indeed gratifying to the people of the United States, when it is known that such imports largely exceed those of any previous year.

Europe has long held a tight grasp upon a large proportion of the trade of this country, but prejudice is fast giving way to reason, and the business men are turning an inquiring attention toward the United States, and I am told that two new firms are soon to be established in this city for the purpose of doing an extensive business in the importation of American manufactured goods, and I predict that within a few months this port of Brazil will have agencies established in the United States for the purchase of all manner of manufactured articles.

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE IN BRAZIL.

[Consul Prindle, of Para, October, 1880.]

I would not advise any American to attempt business in Brazil without first acquiring a good knowledge of the Portuguese language, for it is really an indispensable necessity in order to succeed.

I consider that the establishment of American commercial houses in Brazil would do more toward increasing our trade with this people than could be accomplished by any other means. Undoubtedly in the course of time we shall be much more numerously represented here than we are at present, but the process must, I think, be very slow unless there shall be a change of tactics. There appear to be but few American clerks in Brazil, even in American houses, and in this, so far as my knowledge extends, American merchants differ much from British and German, whose clerks are generally of their own nationality. I believe if a number of young Americans, of good character and business ability and well up in the Portuguese language, could manage to obtain positions in sound commercial houses in each of the principal cities on the coast of Brazil, in due time they would make their influence greatly felt in our trade. But to go to work the other way, that is, establish, get out a stock of merchandise, invite consignments, &c., and then begin to learn the language and the business methods of the people, is to put both capital and credit to extraordinary risks, most generally fatal to success, as results have shown.

OPENINGS FOR AMERICAN GOODS.

[Consul-General Adamson, November, 1880.]

With proper efforts we should be able to increase our sales to Brazil in several lines of wares or products already introduced, and to introduce others not yet put on this market.

In my opinion, there is a market here for a greater variety of cotton goods and iron ware, plated ware, glass ware, plantation machinery, paints and various chemical substances, hams, sides of bacon, cheese, beans, dried fruits, and potatoes, and for some, at least, of the small wares in which, hitherto, Germany has undersold us. Even the past errors of shippers will probably result to the advantage of wiser men, for some articles forced on the market at ruinous rates will perhaps find favor somewhere, and may yet create demand for those goods or modifications of them.

The future of our trade here is hopeful, but our people may as well disabuse their minds of the idea that this is a new Japan just opened to commerce, and that the people of Brazil are particularly anxious to trade with us above all others. There are a great many popular fallacies to be got rid of.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF URUGUAY.

The exports of British cottons to Uruguay during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	19,528,600	$1,205,000
Piece goods, printed	18,441,200	1,487,000
Piece goods, mixed	1,026,500	112,000
Total piece goods	38,996,300	2,804,000
Lace and patent net goods		24,000
Hosiery		44,000
Sewing-thread		180,000
All other cottons		29,000
Total exports		3,081,000

This shows an increase of over 16,600,000 yards of piece goods, and of $1,392,000 on the exports of 1879.

The exports of cotton goods from France to Uruguay amount to about $225,000 per annum, French goods therein amounting to $170,000, the remainder being made up of goods in transit through France.

The exports of American cottons to Uruguay during the fiscal year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	195,514	$31,422
Piece goods, printed	150,691	14,014
All other cottons		7,088
Total exports		52,524

Taking into consideration the extent of the cotton-goods trade of Uruguay, and the opportunities which exist in that country for American trade in general, the showing of American cotton goods in that market is inexcusable, and wholly the result of non-attention thereto.

In regard to the lack of trade communication between Uruguay and the United States, to which fact our meager exports of cottons to that country are chiefly attributable, Consul Russell, of Montevideo, wrote as follows in 1880:

It cannot be questioned that steam communication between New York and the River Plate, established and conducted by steamers judiciously constructed for the trade, with due regard to cost, carrying capacity, and passenger accommodation, would prove a success. Americans coming to this country from New York would certainly prefer to travel under the folds of an American flag, as would also citizens of the United States homeward bound. A "through line," it is believed, would also invite European travelers in this country to make their *return* voyage via the United States; but on inquiry they learn—Americans with mortification, Europeans with surprise—that no steamer carrying the American flag clears from any port of the River Plate. It would also greatly relieve the postal service of present intermediate hinderances and delays, and thus greatly promote not only commercial interests, but the social comfort for the people of both countries. There is, too, an outspoken preference here for the markets of the States. Farming implements and manufactured articles generally are highly

appreciated, coming as they say from the mother republic. It is said of one of the steamship companies mentioned above, which now dispatches a steamer monthly to the United States, that, commencing not many years ago with but *two* steamers, it to-day controls a fleet of forty, plying between Europe and the River Plate and Brazil.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

A very interesting and valuable report on the cotton-goods trade of the Argentine Republic, by Consul Baker, of Buenos Ayres, will be found in its proper place. With the exception of the omission of samples of the cotton goods sold in that country—an omission which seems to have been almost unavoidable on the part of the consul—this report is perhaps the clearest exposition of the various phases of the cotton-goods trade submitted by any of the consuls; and as the cotton-goods trade of the Argentine Republic is, to a very great degree, illustrative of the trade of the other countries of Central and South America, the attention of our merchants and manufacturers who are desirous of extending their commercial relations, is specially directed to the following exhibit.

According to Consul Baker's report, the imports of cotton goods into the Argentine Republic during the year 1879 amounted to $5,214,000, being a decrease of nearly $350,000 from the preceding year. The imports for 1879 came from the following countries:

Imports of cotton fabrics into the Argentine Republic during the year 1879.

Imported from—	Value.	Imported from—	Value.
Great Britain	$3,191,555	Italy	$62,187
Belgium	221,482	All other countries	36,659
Germany	215,743		
Chili	183,058	Total	4,325,218
Uruguay	179,290	Cottons in transit	888,782
France	119,480		
United States	115,764	Grand total	5,214,000

If we assume, as we safely may, that nearly all the imports in the above statement from Chili and Uruguay were British goods, and that the latter held their relative proportion in the transit trade, it will be seen that the English manufacturers have almost complete control of the Argentine markets.

Leaving Consul Baker's report and coming down to later returns, the exports of British cotton goods to the Argentine Republic during the year 1880, according to official returns, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	29,163,400	$1,837,000
Printed piece goods	30,652,400	2,226,000
Mixed piece goods	1,858,500	248,000
Total piece goods	61,674,300	4,311,000
Lace and patent net goods		39,000
Hosiery:		
Stockings and socks		58,000
Other		73,000
Sewing-thread		248,000
Al other cottons		87,000
Total exports		4,816,000

The latest official French reports at hand show that the exports of cotton goods from France to the Argentine Republic amount to about $643,000 a year, of which amount French goods comprise $130,000, the remainder being goods in transit through France from Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, and other countries.

The exports of American cottons to the Argentine Republic during the fiscal year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	657,649	$78,485
Printed piece goods	272,278	26,706
All other cottons	.....	28,456
Total	929,927	133,647

The British cotton goods sold to the Argentine Republic, according to the foregoing statements, were 66 yards to 1 yard of American in quantity, and in value about $37 to $1 for American.

The average price per yard of British and American piece goods exported to the Argentine Republic, as given in the above official figures, were as follows:

British: Plain piece goods, 6.29 cents; printed piece goods, 7.26 cents.

American: Plain piece goods, 11.93 cents; printed piece goods, 9.93 cents.

In regard to the outlook for the American cotton-goods trade in the Argentine Republic, Consul Baker writes as follows:

It will be seen from what I have written, and the statistics I have given, that the Argentine trade in cotton fabrics offers a wide field for American enterprise, and our manufacturers should bear in mind that this trade is not for a day, or a season, but, I may say, for all time to come. There can be no local competition for them to contend with. There are no cotton manufacturers in the Argentine Republic, and there will be none certainly within the lifetime of the present generation, while the demand for cotton goods, already very considerable, will go on increasing with the growth of the country. The great bulk of this trade now belongs to Great Britain, simply for the reason that the leading importers of dry goods in this market are English houses, many of them being merely branches of establishments in London, Liverpool, or Manchester. It is this fact which causes the principal difficulty in getting American goods upon the market here. It is a difficulty, however, which with proper effort can be overcome. Trade has a tendency to keep in its "old ruts," but it can be diverted by furnishing a better article cheaper, or as cheap. The great thing is to establish a foothold here for American cottons, and this during the last year has been in process of accomplishment. Several English firms, and I would particularly refer to that of Matthew Forrester & Co., who know the superiority of the cotton fabrics of the United States, and their freedom from the dirt and sizing which have made some English manufactures so notorious in foreign markets, have succeeded in disposing of all the American goods they could procure, and they tell me the prospects of a more extended trade, if our American mills will afford them proper inducements, is most promising for the future. But these prospects may not be realized unless we assist them. Our milling interests must not wait for the trade of the River Plate to come to them. They must send down here, and by all available ways and means invite it. They must themselves take the initiative, and systematically show the people the superiority of their fabrics, and the advantage it will be to them to deal with the United States. The cotton-goods trade of the Argentine Republic is worth securing, and it can be secured, but not without some labor.

COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF CHILI.

The exports of British cotton goods to Chili during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	34,670,000	$1,857,000
Printed piece goods	34,056,800	2,270,000
Total piece goods	68,726,800	4,127,000
Hosiery		78,000
Sewing-thread		160,000
All other		97,000
Total exports		5,162,000

The exports of cotton goods from France to Chili amount to about $300,000, of which amount, however, French manufactures comprise only about $70,000, the remainder being goods in transit through France.

The American cottons exported to Chili during the fiscal year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	2,209,307	$201,132
Printed piece goods	135,126	11,418
All other cottons		5,319
Total exports	2,344,433	217,869

The average price per yard of British and American cotton piece goods exported to Chili, as above, was as follows:

British: Plain piece goods, 5.32 cents; printed piece goods, 6.66 cents.

American: Plain piece goods, 9.09 cents; printed piece goods, 8.44 cents.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF ECUADOR.

It appears from our consular and other reports that Ecuador, commercially speaking, has been entirely neglected by our manufacturers and exporters, while countries further away and worthy of no more commercial consideration have been more or less cultivated. Even our customs returns make no mention of any trade between the United States and Ecuador, while the fact remains that, comparatively, our trade with Ecuador is as large as our trade with any of the South American countries.

For these reasons, no details from our customs returns concerning the American cotton manufactures which find their way to Ecuador can be given, although considerable quantities of our goods are sold in that market. Consul McLean, of Guayaquil, in a very interesting report

upon the commerce of Ecuador and our share therein, published in Commercial Relations for 1879, says:

The imports of Guayaquil from the United States embrace a catalogue of about 225 different articles, of which nearly 200 are manufactured articles. The principal imports of American goods are as follows: Dry goods, domestics, prints, edge-tools, saddlery, machinery, flour, lard, rubber goods, sugar and sugar-mills, sewing-machines, hatchets, furniture, engines and boilers, canned goods, beer, iron ware, hats, cordage, dental instruments, pianos, printing-presses, wooden ware, machetes, coffee mills, cutlery, &c.

The value of the dry goods and domestics imported as above was given by the consul as amounting to $104,000 during the year 1879.

Exports of British cotton goods to Ecuador during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	6,750,600	$428,000
Printed piece goods	7,568,900	573,000
Total piece goods	14,319,500	1,001,000
Hosiery		19,000
Total exports		1,020,000

The exports of cotton goods from France to Ecuador amount to less than $20,000 annually, and nearly all of these are goods in transit through France.

The following extracts from the report of Consul McLean will be found of interest in connection with any efforts to enlarge our cotton-goods trade in Eucador:

EXTENDING OUR TRADE.

Ecuador offers a field for our manufactures which should produce many times greater results. I have carefully examined the nature of our trade with Ecuador, with a view to suggesting in the most public manner possible the means of increasing the consumption of American goods. The examination naturally divided itself into two branches: what people here need in lines which can be furnished to advantage from the States, and the causes operating against our trade.

On the first branch of inquiry it is only necessary to refer to the detailed table of imports from the States. Last year there were seventy firms importing from the United States. This year seventy-nine firms imported more or less of their stocks from the States.

In relation to the points of friction in the current of our trade, I have located most of them, and believe that a good deal may be done to mitigate the evils complained of. These obstructions consist of bad mail service, bad and expensive transportation, and carelessness in packing.

There were 55,785 packages of export cargo and 46,306 packages of import cargo in the trade between the United States and the port of Guayaquil, via the Isthmus, a total of 102,091 bales, boxes, and barrels, which would make a very good business without that from the other Ecuadorian ports, and if American capitalists would start a line of steamers on this coast to connect with the Pacific Mail steamers there is no reason why it would not pay.

Several attempts have been made to break the monopoly held by the British Steamship Company, but they have failed, because the British company has gained such strength that it can afford to carry freight and passengers at losing rates until the opposition is forced to withdraw. This has in each case been followed by an increase in the tariff, until it is now a heavy burden. It would be profitable to build American steamers and organize a company under the Ecuadorian flag. That would drive the present line away from Ecuadorian waters.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

Beginning with Smyrna, in Asia Minor, and ending with Persia, particulars are given, as far as practicable, of the cotton goods trade of the continent of Asia.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF ASIATIC TURKEY.

The total exports of British cotton goods to Asiatic Turkey during the year 1880 were: Piece goods, plain and printed, 168,692,300 yards, valued at $11,033,000; all other cottons, $89,000, total $11,122,000.

In the British tabulated forms in which the plain and printed piece goods exported to Asiatic Turkey are designated, they are entered under the general head of Turkey, and are thus included with the goods sent to the whole empire. Assuming that the British cottons exported to Asia Minor are similar to those exported to Turkey in Europe, the average price per yard was as follows: plain piece goods, 6 cents; printed piece goods, 7.49 cents.

The exports of cotton goods from France to Asiatic Turkey are entered under the general head of "Turkey," and cannot be designated.

According to the returns of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department, the exports of American cottons to Asiatic Turkey during the fiscal year 1880, amounted to only about $22,000. This amount, however, only represents the direct exports thither, for, according to a report by Consul Smithers, of Smyrna, the imports of American cottons into that port alone amounted to $228,000 during the year 1879.

How large an amount of American cottons reach Syria we have no means of knowing. It cannot, however, be of much consequence, and consists of such goods as British and German merchants find necessary for the filling out of their trade.

Consul Edgar, in his interesting report, herewith, says that the English, having had the field for so many years, and having created a demand for special qualities, the Americans would find it very hard to supplant them. If our American cottons can only be disposed of in regions where neither the English nor other foreign goods control the markets, the outlook for our cotton manufactures is very unpromising indeed. As the English have done in Syria, so must our manufacturers do—enter the field, study the wants of the people, sell them better goods, and thus work their way steadily and persistently into a share of the Syrian trade. We must create a market for American specialties as the English manufacturers have done.

The further advice of Consul Edgar concerning the poverty of the people of Syria and the necessity of supplying them with low-priced goods is worthy of deep consideration, as is also the suggestion that a number of American manufacturers should unite and send an agent to Syria with a large variety of goods suitable for the market.

The fact is the American manufacturers of cotton goods must not be afraid to enter any market no matter how strongly entrenched therein the other manufacturers of the world may be, and while consuls are invited and expected to show all the difficulties which must be encoun-

tered and overcome before we can hope to secure our share in the several markets, they do not understand the temper of the American manufacturers, agriculturists, or exporters when they start out in their reports by asserting or assuming that there is any commercial undertaking impossible to them by reason of competition, or a prior possession of a market by others.

Consul Smithers, of Smyrna, in regard to our trade outlook in Asia Minor, says:

A ready market would be found here for many articles of American manufacture if their utility and superiority were known. As a means of increasing our trade with this country it is recommended that manufacturers send out circulars descriptive of their goods in the French and modern Greek languages, which this consulate will undertake to have distributed.

THE COTTON AND COTTON GOODS TRADE OF BRITISH INDIA.

The imports of cotton manufactures into British India during the year 1879, were as follows:

Yarn and twist	$12, 342, 000
Piece goods, unbleached	38, 401, 000
Piece goods, bleached	11, 365, 000
Piece goods, printed	11, 492, 000
All other	1, 460, 000
Total	75, 060, 000

In addition to this large import of cotton manufactures, there were in 1879, according to Consul-General Litchfield, of Calcutta, 54 cotton mills in British India, running nearly 1,500,000 spindles, and employing upwards of 40,000 persons. On account of the inferior quality of the Indian cotton, the production of these mills is of the coarsest grades; No. 20 mule twist being the finest spun, owing to the shortness of the staple. The remarkable development of the Indian cotton manufacturing industry, however, can be appreciated when it is taken into consideration that in 1854 the first mill was opened in the empire.

Exports of cotton goods from England to British India during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn and twist ..... pounds..	44, 097, 700	$13, 772, 000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	1, 361, 256, 000	67, 004, 000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	308, 405, 700	20, 587, 000
Mixed piece goods ..... do....	634, 300	97, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	1, 670, 296, 000	87, 688, 000
Lace and patent net goods		433, 000
Hosiery: stockings and socks		92, 000
other sorts		112, 000
Sewing thread		413, 000
All other cotton goods		360, 000
Total to India		102, 870, 000

The foregoing was an increase over the exports to British India during the year 1879 of nearly 446,000,000 yards of piece goods, and an increase in the total value of $27,810,000.

The exports of cotton goods from France to British India amount to about $585,000 per annum, of which foreign goods comprise more than nineteen-twentieths.

According to the returns of the Treasury Department showing our imports and exports, the American cottons exported to British India during the fiscal year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	1,589,197	$115,148
Printed piece goods	262,577	20,705
All other	.....	190
Total exports	1,851,774	136,043

Although this seems a very small exhibit, when compared wtih the vast export of British cotton goods, it bears evidence of a marked increase, especially in American plain piece goods, viz, from 387,000 yards in 1875 to the above 1,851,774 yards in 1880.

In drawing attention to this increase, Consul-General Litchfield says:

It is believed that the actual increase is much larger than these figures indicate, as large quantities of American drills are imported via England.

In his interesting report transmitting samples of the cotton goods sold in the Indian market—which report will be found in its proper place—Consul-General Litchfield says:

The piece goods trade in this country is undergoing a change in favor of the local weaving industry, clearly because the native cloth is *cotton cloth*, and not a mixture of cotton and clay, as is the case with the greater portion of the British goods. Such being the case, it would seem to be a favorable time to push the sale of American cotton goods. At the same time, with a decided superiority in quality on the part of the American goods, it would be by no means an easy matter to meet the preferences of the actual consumers, since the British importers and native middle men are almost able to dictate to the poor consumer what he shall buy.

The export of British cottons to India during 1880 warrants the conclusion that the change in favor of pure goods referred to by the consul-general has not yet found much practical expression. There can be no doubt, however, that if the proper efforts are made there is a large field for American cottons in British India.

In his report on the trade of British India for the five years ending with 1879, the assistant secretary to the government of India refers as follows to the imports of American cotton manufactures:

The imports of American gray cotton goods are increasing, having risen from 387,000 yards in 1874–'75 to 975,000, in 1878–'79 an increase to be attributed, it would seem, entirely to the recent modifications in the Indian tariff, by which gray goods made of yarns not of a higher number than 30 are exempt from duty. Most of the American goods imported are drills, and these when made of 30 yarn and under have been exempted since March 1878. From inquiries in Bombay it is believed that the increase in the trade in these goods is far greater than appears from our returns of trade with the United States, for large quantities of American drills are imported *via* England, and it would seem that the Americans have taken full advantage both in Calcutta and in Bombay of the remission of duty and placed considerable quantities of their goods in the Indian market. The actual trade from the United States, however, is but a small fraction of the whole trade in gray cotton goods, which were imported to the extent of over 775,000,000 yards, whereas the imports from the United States were under a million. If the addition of what comes *via* England increased this amount six-fold, the trade in American cloths would still be less than one per cent. of the whole trade.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF CEYLON.

According to the latest official publications at hand, the imports of cotton manufactures into Ceylon were as follows:

COTTON YARN AND TWIST.

Whence imported.	1876.	1877.	1878.
Great Britain	$65,000	$30,590	$23,088
British possessions	9,300	7,613	7,488
Foreign countries	3,300	17	351
Total twist	77,600	38,220	30,927

COTTON GOODS.

Great Britain	$2,896,125	$2,159,000	$1,489,800
British India	604,000	521,000	356,570
Other British possessions	85	580	1,860
France	151,600	60,100	47,970
French India	63,180	54,500	23,900
Other countries	10	5,820	7,300
Total cotton goods	3,715,000	2,801,000	1,927,400
Grand total, goods and yarn	3,792,600	2,839,220	1,958,327

The decrease in the foregoing imports is remarkable. Consul Morey says, however, that the imports during the year 1879 rose to $2,500,000.

The exports from Great Britain to Ceylon during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	20,171,100	$1,196,000
Printed piece goods	6,749,000	486,000
Total piece goods	26,920,000	1,682,000
All other goods		24,000
Total exports		1,706,000

As the exports from Great Britain during the year 1880 were only about $200,000 more than those of the preceding year, the present importation of cotton manufactures into Ceylon may be estimated at $2,000,000.

The official publications of the exports of France and the United States make no mention of any trade in American or French cottons in Ceylon.

In regard to American trade opportunities in Ceylon, Consul Morey, of Colombo, says, referring to the imports of the colony:

> They come from Europe, India, China, Africa, and Australia—in fact, from all parts of the globe except from the United States, the country which produces in the greatest abundance and perfection most of the articles that are in constant demand here, especially in canned meats, canned fish, canned fruit, salted beef and pork, hams and bacon, &c., which have only to be put properly on this market to find a ready sale.

In regard to our dependence on indirect trading with Ceylon, and the vicious principle of depending upon merchants or commission men, whose interests are conserved by the non-introduction of American goods into their markets, Consul Morey reports as follows:

One or two consignments of American goods were sent here from England to British houses for sale, the outcome of which must have rather astonished the senders, inasmuch as the goods actually lay in stock until they rotted, and were finally buried, the general public never knowing that they were in the island.

It is, as I have frequently explained to manufacturers and exporters in the United States who have written to me, useless to expect local dealers, who get out large stocks on their own account of perishable goods, especially in the line of provisions of a character which they have supplied to their customers for fifty years, to welcome the arrival of and endeavor to find a market for goods which would supplant their own. Therefore, when a consignment of American hams is sent here from England, no serious attempt will be made to put the alien intruders before the public to the diminishing of the sales of their own already too-slow-selling goods.

There is abundant room here for large quantities of American products, but they must be handled by people who have not large quantities of old-fashioned, high-priced European goods of their own on hand, upon the rapid and highly profitable sale of which their own success depends.

In regard to the export trade of Ceylon with the United States, Consul Morey wrote as follows in 1879:

The export trade with the United States shows a remarkable increase over that of any previous year, eleven sailing ships and one steamer, the latter on her way from China, having cleared for the United States, carrying 5,163 tons of cargo, valued at $591,124.32, against 1,687 tons, valued at $172,762, in 1877. In marked contrast to this stands the fact that there were no imports from America, and thus, it may be seen, our country is expending over half a million dollars annually in this island without any reciprocity of trade whatever, and that too whilst many American products might be introduced at great profit.

COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The imports of cotton manufactures into the Straits settlements during the year 1878—the latest colonial official publications at hand—were as follows: At Singapore, piece goods, $5,161,089; yarn and twist, $757,049; all other cottons,* $401,122; total into Singapore, $6,319,260. At Penang, cotton piece goods, $1,658,622. Total imports into the Straits settlements, $7,974,882.

As Singapore and Penang are but entrepots for the reception and distribution of British manufactures and colonial products, the greater portion of these imports were again exported, viz:

Exported from Singapore, cotton piece goods, $4,200,971; twist, $563,107; native waistcloths or petticoats, $143,014; total exports from Singapore, $4,907,092.

Exported from Penang, piece goods, $820,740. Total re-exports of cotton manufactures, $5,727,832, leaving for local consumption and future export demands, $2,247,050.

It will be noted, however, in the following tables, that certain amounts of the imports and exports of Singapore enter into the imports and exports of Penang, and *vice versa*, thus giving the whole trade greater proportions than it should possess. For instance, the imports at Penang include goods to the value of $650,842, from Singapore, and as these goods were first credited among the imports at the latter port, this amount must be deducted from the total imports into the Straits settlements in order to arrive at a fair estimate of the true import trade of

* Native waistcloths or petticoats.

the colony. In like manner $47,746 imported from Penang into Singapore must be also deducted. So also must the exports from the one port to the other be deducted from the general exports of the colony. Deducting these amounts we find the true import and export trade of cotton goods into and from the Straits settlements to have been, in 1878, as follows: Imports, $7,276,294; exports, $5,679,173.

The countries from which the foregoing imports were received and to which they were re-exported, were as follows:

SINGAPORE.

From and to—	Imports.	Exports.
PIECE GOODS:		
Great Britain	$4,904,470	
Penang	47,746	$17,415
British India	50,680	
Hong-Kong	23,315	129,985
Other British possessions		42,277
Total British and possessions	5,026,211	189,677
Dutch possessions	24,149	1,003,080
France	20,215	
Germany	23,980	
Holland	1,000	
French possessions	21,733	1,539,601
Labuan		35,703
Siam		984,056
Cochin China		46,442
Malay Peninsula		139,633
Sarawak		126,807
All other countries	43,771	135,972
Total piece goods	5,161,089	4,200,971
COTTON TWIST:		
Great Britain	731,279	
British India	14,925	
Hong-Kong		5,080
Other British possessions	360	5,622
Dutch possessions		70,966
Holland	4,000	
Siam		242,261
Malay Peninsula		197,157
Spanish possessions		12,012
French possessions		18,341
All other countries	6,485	11,668
Total cotton twist	757,049	563,107
COTTON SARONGS (NATIVE WAISTCLOTHS).		
Great Britain	96,428	
Dutch possessions	50,059	67,748
British possessions	1,879	10,597
France	160,145	
Germany	30,013	
Sarawak		2,705
Siam		51,418
Malay Peninsula		6,985
Spanish possessions		511
All other countries	62,598	3,050
Total	401,122	143,014
Grand total to and from Singapore	6,319,260	4,907,092

PENANG.

From and to—	Imports.	Exports.
COTTON PIECE GOODS:		
Great Britain	$720,468	.....
British India	143,277	$6,542
Singapore	650,842	31,244
Hong-Kong	.....	14,895
Other British possessions	3,482	7,501
Total British and possessions	1,518,069	60,182
French possessions	100,670	.....
Germany	10,957	.....
Italy	27,790	.....
Malay Peninsula	.....	55,370
Siam	.....	78,079
Dutch possessions	.....	610,889
All other countries	1,142	16,220
Total	1,568,628	820,740

Exports of British Cotton Goods to the Straits settlements during the year 1880.

Description,	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn and twist ..... pounds	16,782,800	$3,611,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards	95,287,300	4,875,000
Printed piece goods ..... do	20,029,900	1,477,000
Mixed piece goods ..... do	158,700	19,000
Total piece goods ..... do	132,258,700	9,982,000
Hosiery	.....	19,000
Sewing thread	.....	181,500
All other cottons	.....	98,000
Total exports	.....	10,280,500

The foregoing is just twice the value of British goods shipped to the colony during the year 1879, but less than once and a half in quantity.

There are no direct exports of American cotton goods to Singapore, although it is probable that some of our goods reach that market through the courtesy of British merchants.

In regard to the trade of the Straits settlements with the United States Consul Studer, of Singapore, says:

While the exports from this colony to the United States are very large, the imports from the United States consist only of goods which the merchants here cannot obtain from Europe, viz: Kerosene, plug tobacco, turpentine, and a few ships' stores; also, now and then, canned fruits and minor articles.

HOW TO INTRODUCE OUR COTTON MANUFACTURES INTO THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The fact that such an important port as Singapore has neither an American house nor an American business representative for the introduction of our cotton goods into that market is the principal and, perhaps, the only reason why our manufactures do not figure among the imports of the Straits settlements. In addition there exists, according to Consul Studer, much prejudice among the British and other merchants engaged in the cotton-goods trade at Singapore against the introduction of American fabrics, although he natives are very fairly disposed in this regard.

Another reason for the meagerness of American trade in general at the Straits settlements, is that, while steamers to the number of 2,200, aggregating 1,200,000 tons capacity, enter the port of Singapore annually, the American flag has no place in the fleet.

Consul Studer gives the following interesting account of the condition

of American trade at Singapore, and of the opportunity for the introduction of our cotton goods, which undoubtedly exists at that port:

American goods are not properly introduced, when introduced at all, into this market. The merchants, such as are willing to sell our products, know nothing of them. They will not order from catalogues, but would sell on commission. How, unless they have samples of the goods, could they describe in a practical way the superiority of certain pumps, agricultural and mining machinery or implements, when they have not the first idea how such machinery is to be used? One of them, a German, and considered one of the best merchants here, not long ago told me, making descriptive gestures with his hands, that he had what I judged would make about a cubic yard of American catalogues of American articles of manufacture seeking a market here; "but," said he, "it is useless to try to introduce them." I reasoned with him, and offered my services to explain as best I could the advantages to the working-class, assuring him that once understood and appreciated by a few, a market could soon be created.

"And what about our cotton goods, duck, drills, muslins, calicoes, &c.? I am sure we can compete now with any nation in Europe, and before our war of rebellion this very colony and adjacent islands and countries received more cotton goods from the United States than from anywhere else." "I know it," he replied, "but your cotton goods are too good for the price, too heavy and substantial; and your calicoes are too dear to compete with those from Europe; the fact is that after the breaking out of your war, when the imports of your cotton goods ceased, those from England, Germany, Belgium, and France, and the light linens from Holland and Belgium were introduced, and the native purchasers are now used to them and ask for nothing else." I suggested that his argument was not sound, since many very intelligent natives, good, honest people, had asked me several times why American merchants, our great war having ended years ago, did not send again those excellent American cotton goods that used to last twice as long as the light stuffs they were obliged to buy now.

Two firms imported American drills, to my knowledge, during the past two years, one English, the other German. I asked once the manager of the former, how his American goods sold. He answered that *they were too good and too cheap*, no profit in them; he would not import any more of them. "They have a tendency to leave English drills in the lurch?" I asked. "Oh, we are used to certain goods here, and don't wish to change the market; these goods were consigned to us; that's the way we came to have them; they are gone now." As to the German firm, I am glad to say they have the pluck to keep up their stock of American goods, and sell them readily. If they were only as well informed about other American goods as they are in textile fabrics, with their willingness they would soon create a good market generally. There are perhaps other firms that received American cotton goods, without my knowledge, not in American vessels, but by way of England or the Continent. Thinking it all over carefully, I cannot help feeling somehow that, a few merchants excepted, there is either an utter indifference or a set determination, or both, to keep out of this market all American goods except those which they cannot obtain from Europe.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF DUTCH INDIA.

According to the latest official returns at hand, the imports of cotton manufactures into the Dutch possessions in India amount to about $14,000,000 annually.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Holland to her Indian colonies during the year 1879, amounted to $3,570,000, which constituted the great bulk of the Dutch exports thereto during that year.

The exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to Dutch India during the year 1880, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn and twist ..... pounds..	999,200	$345,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	39,053,500	2,697,000
Printed piece goods ..... do ...	37,279,600	2,590,000
Total piece goods ..... do ...	76,333,100	5,287,000
Total exports	.....	$5,632,000

If the imports of British cotton goods from the Straits Settlements, British India, and Hong-Kong, be added to the imports from Great Britain direct, it will be found that they control the greater part of the Dutch India trade.

The direct exports of cotton goods from France to Dutch India, amount to about $45,000 per annum, nearly all of which are foreign manufactures in transit through France.

The exports of American cottons to Dutch India during the fiscal year 1880, consisted of 10,221 yards of plain piece goods, valued at $2,475, and of miscellaneous cottons to the value of $153—making a total of only $2,630.

Taking into consideration the consumption of cotton manufactures in Dutch India, and the further consideration that we import therefrom annually products to the amount of about $6,500,000, there are no reasons, save those which prevail in regard to the Straits Settlements, why our cotton manufactures should not sell to the extent of one million or two million dollars a year in that market.

In a very valuable report on the commerce of Dutch India, written by Consul Eckstein, of Amsterdam, at the close of the year 1880, certain facts are given, which are herewith republished, and which are of much interest to our cotton goods exporters:

The trade there is almost exclusively in the hands of Europeans, the English, Dutch, and Germans. Of the Europeans conducting business there rarely any ever remain in the country longer than from ten to fifteen years. There are various causes accounting for that, chief among which it appears that the character of the climate has a more or less injurious effect upon their health. On their return to Europe they usually leave the management of their business in the hands of junior members of their firms, or in the hands of trusty employés, giving them an interest in the business, and who are, as a rule, younger men and more recently arrived in the country. On coming back to Europe these merchants usually domicile themselves, the Dutch at Amsterdam and Rotterdam, the English at London, and the Germans at Hamburg and Bremen. In most cases they establish offices in these cities and continue to transact business connected with their houses in the colonies, and more especially for the purpose of attending to the purchasing and shipping of merchandise.

It will therefore be observed that American manufacturers and exporters, in any effort to establish or extend their trade in the Dutch East India colonies, might well take cognizance of the above recited facts.

The trade in cotton fabrics of every description especially deserves to attract their attention, as it is said to be very large, and as up to the present time there seems not to have been and energetic endeavor put forth to compete for it by Americans. The great bulk of such goods, or nearly all that goes to supply the wants of plantation hands, laboring and mechanic classes, and the common natives generally, is, as a rule, of a poor quality.

What is principally wanted and sells readiest in plain white cotton goods, such as shirtings, muslins, cambrics, jaconets, lawns, &c., is a smooth, glossy surface, no matter of what consistency or how produced. The intrinsic quality or strength of the goods seems not to be of much importance, but the finish and particularly the cost of them are primary considerations. Colored cotton goods, plain and figured, are almost invariably preferred if the colors are very bright or flashy, and the figures gaudy and attractive.

American cottons of better qualities and styles, but correspondingly higher in price, have as yet hardly commenced to be introduced in the country. But, from what I learn, it seems quite possible that a large market for such goods might be opened up there if small quantities of different kinds were first sent out, consigned to first-class houses at Samarang, Batavia, and Soerabaya, to be sold on commission. There are, I am informed, responsible firms there who would be willing to receive them and use their best endeavors in the introduction and sale of them. But in this case the shipper of the goods would have to be prepared, that in the beginning sales would be unimportant, and profits, if any, small.

Up to the present time petroleum is about the only article which is imported into the "colonies" from the United States in large quantities. There is said to be a promising field there for large commercial operations with the United States, but to realize them it would seem to be an indispensable condition for some first-class American houses to

establish branch houses at some of the principal cities, or, in lieu thereof, to send competent agents there, provided with proper credentials. A thorough investigation by such agents on the spot upon the subject in all its bearings would be likely to result, I am assured, in a very great increase in the import trade with the United States.

The average price of British cottons exported to Dutch India during the year 1880, was as follows, per yard: Plain piece goods, 5.12 cents; printed piece goods, 7.37 cents; yarn and twist, 21.22 cents per pound. According to the returns of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department, the American piece goods plain, exported thither, averaged more than 24 cents per yard.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The total foreign trade of the Philippine Islands in 1878—the latest official statistics at hand—was estimated as follows: Imports, $17,293,000; exports, $17,470,000. Assuming that the imports and exports of the other principal countries dealing with the islands have increased since that time proportionately to the increase of the exports from and imports into England, the foreign trade during the year 1880 must have exceeded $40,000,000.

The total trade of Great Britain with the Philippines, during the year 1880, was as follows: Imports from the islands, $8,208,000—an increase when compared with 1878 of over $2,000,000; exports thereto, $6,456,000—an increase of $2,300,000.

The principal portion of the trade of the Philippines being with the British Colonial possessions, British goods control that market.

Exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to the Philippine Islands during the year 1880

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn.....pounds..	1,241,400	$379,000
Plain piece goods.....yards..	28,383,600	1,764,000
Printed piece goods.....do....	22,863,500	1,648,000
Total piece goods.....do....	51,247,100	3,412,000
Total exports.....	.....	3,791,000

This shows an increase, when compared with the exports of 1879, of nearly 29,000,000 yards of piece goods, and a total increase in value of $1,867,000.

The official returns of the Treasury Department make no mention of any exports of American cottons to the Philippine Islands during the fiscal year 1880. Our entire direct exports during that year amounted to only $11,938, while our imports from the islands amounted to $6,603,348.

The inequality of this trade seems truly surprising.

In 1877, our vice-consul at Manila wrote that an effort was then about to be made for the introduction of American cottons into the Philippine Islands, but on account of the trade having been so long monopolized by the British merchants, and on account of the cheapness of the British goods, great opposition to the movement was expected. As the channels through which this effort was to be made were those same British merchants, whose interests and sympathy, very naturally, were with their own goods, it is doubtful whether the effort was permitted to assume any practicable form.

In order to test this question fairly, *real efforts* must be made, not only in the Philippines but throughout all Asia, for the introduction of American goods, and these efforts must be made through the medium

of American houses, or through partnerships with houses which will find it to their interest and profit to place our goods on the market. It is better to make no effort whatever than to make such efforts as that spoken of above, which are assured failures before they are begun, and which discredit our trade and discourage our manufacturers and exporters.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF CHINA.

Omitting the opium imports, which cannot properly be classed with legitimate commerce, the imports of cotton manufactures amount in value to one-half the total imports of the Chinese Empire.

According to the returns of the imperial maritime customs, the imports of cotton manufactures were as follows during the years 1879 and 1880:

Description.	1879.		1880.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		Taels.		*Taels.*
Shirtings:				
gray, plain ..... pieces..	5,602,552	8,141,599	4,653,736	6,441,232
white, plain ..... do....	1,357,407	2,410,527	1,519,175	2,619,335
white, figured, brocaded, spotted, &c ..... do....	21,189	32,765	634	1,346
dyed, plain ..... do....	32,518	66,648	71,963	153,141
dyed, figured, brocaded, spotted, &c ..... do....	51,054	113,644	45,367	102,434
T-cloths ..... do....	2,415,528	2,609,681	3,607,951	3,879,908
Drills, English, Dutch, American ..... do	1,172,985	2,531,738	936,401	1,845,747
Sheetings ..... do....	688,626	1,607,986	877,806	2,075,073
Jeans and twills ..... do....	299,364	486,412	486,049	779,800
Chintzes, furnitures, and cotton prints ..... do....	213,228	250,170	240,167	278,034
Turkey red cloths ..... do....	274,276	389,279	305,215	395,815
Damasks, dyed ..... do....	6,791	23,704	12,237	44,044
Velveta, velveteens, and fustians ..... do....	29,157	162,109	73,685	370,330
Jaconets, cambrics, lawns, and muslins ..... do....	90,805	59,084	155,390	93,677
Handkerchiefs ..... dozens..	854,827	131,162	391,247	148,184
Cotton goods, unclassed ..... pieces..	161,503	392,654	182,671	506,745
Cotton yarn and thread ..... piculs..	137,888	3,190,517	151,518	3,648,112
Cotton goods, total ..... value..	.....	22,599,679	.....	23,382,957

The Haikwan tael, in which the foregoing values are given, is quoted by the Chinese customs at $1.38. This gives the value of the cotton goods import of 1880 as $32,258,000.

As the greater portion of the cotton manufactures exported from Europe and America to the British colony of Hong-Kong reach the markets of China ultimately, it is thought proper, for the completion of the subject, to give the exports from England and the United States to Hong-Kong with those to China.

Exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to China and Hong-Kong during the year 1880.

TO CHINA.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	2,731,300	$588,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	258,834,100	13,618,000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	25,501,300	2,333,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	284,335,400	15,951,000
Hosiery	.....	19,000
All other cottons	.....	78,000
Total exports	.....	16,636,000

Exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain, &c.—Continued.

TO HONG-KONG.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	16,728,800	$3,611,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	152,411,300	8,636,000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	10,894,100	991,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	163,305,400	9,627,000
Total exports	.....	13,238,000

TO CHINA AND HONG-KONG COMBINED.

Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	19,495,100	$4,199,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	411,245,400	22,254,000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	36,395,400	3,224,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	447,640,800	25,478,000
Hosiery	.....	19,000
All other cottons	.....	78,000
Total exports	.....	29,774,000

Compared with the cotton-goods exports of 1879, the foregoing statements show for China, a decrease of nearly 29,000,000 yards, but a decrease of only about $500,000, in plain piece goods, and an increase of 4,700,000 yards, and of $580,000 in printed piece goods; for Hong-Kong, an increase of 4,800,000 pounds, and of $1,220,000 in twist and yarn, an increase of nearly 12,000,000 yards, and $1,000,000 in plain piece goods, and a small increase in printed goods. To Hong-Kong and China combined the showing is as follows: A decrease of over 14,600,000 yards, but an increase of over $2,000,000 in piece goods of all sorts, and a total increase in the value of all cotton goods of over $6,000,000.

The foregoing facts indicate that the exports of British cottons for 1880 were of a better quality than those of the preceding year.

Exports of American cotton goods to China and Hong-Kong during the fiscal year 1880.

TO CHINA.

	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	4,360,842	$322,393
Printed piece goods	168,780	11,939
All other cottons	.....	4,802
Total to China	529,622	359,134

TO HONG-KONG.

Plain piece goods	17,798	4,418
All other cottons	.....	10,016
Total to Hong-Kong	.....	14,434
Total to China and Hong-Kong	547,420	373,568

During the fiscal year 1879, the exports of cotton goods from the United States to China amounted to over 22,600,000 yards of piece goods, valued at $1,581,000. This remarkable decrease may be accounted for by the fact that our manufacturers, as reported by our consuls in several countries, finding the home demand more profitable, and as much as they could supply, did not press their goods on the Chinese markets. In addition the Chinese trade of 1879 did not prove as profitable as was expected. Hence the withdrawal of pressure upon that market.

This feature of American trade is very much complained of by our consuls. Our manufacturers, whenever a lull occurs in the home demand, use most commendable efforts for the enlargement of their trade in the various countries, but the moment a brisk home demand again arises they immediately withdraw from foreign markets, to the great annoyance of and losses to their correspondents, who entered into their new business relations believing in their permanence.

The persistence of such practical merchants and manufacturers, as those of the United States are wont to consider themselves, in such a grave commercial mistake as this, is surprising both to our business correspondents and to our competitors for the world's trade, and an immediate reformation is demanded if we would hope to assume a permanent and leading place in international commerce.

The decrease in our cotton-goods trade with China in 1880 cannot be attributed to any other causes than the foregoing, for all our consular reports from that country bear evidence to the continued increase in the public esteem of American cotton goods.

A large proportion of the British cottons exported to China is highly adulterated, and it is asserted, on what seems to be good authority, that the Chinese like these adulterated goods, and buy them with a full knowledge of their composition. The English manufacturers, therefore, claim that they make these goods to supply a positive demand, and the vast quantities of these "clayed cottons" sold, year after year, to such keen customers as the Chinese, apparently sustain this view of the subject. The Department, therefore, directed the compilation of a mass of correspondence, which will be found in the supplement, bearing on this question. It will be observed that our consuls are almost unanimous in advising our manufacturers to maintain the high standard of their goods, believing that, in the end, pure quality will win even against the very low price of the British "clayed" cottons.

The chief factor in the cotton-goods trade of China, on account of the poverty of its people, is the cost of the manufactures. There can be no doubt that if the American pure goods could be sold for anything like the prices at which the adulterated British goods are supplied, we could control the market. The question is whether we can sell our superior cottons at anything like the figures at which British inferior goods are quoted in China? If we cannot, will it pay to manufacture special goods for that market, and can we hope by so doing to compete with the British manufacturers, who have reduced adulteration to a science?

The average price per yard of British cottons shipped to China during the year 1880, according to official valuation, was as follows: Plain piece goods, 4.88 cents; printed piece goods, 9.11 cents; (in 1879, piece goods, plain, 4.56 cents; piece goods, printed, 8.45 cents.) To Hong-Kong: plain piece goods, 5.65 cents; printed piece goods, 9.09 cents; (in 1879, piece goods, plain, 5.28 cents; printed goods, 9.09 cents.)

The average price of American cottons shipped to China in 1880 was: Plain piece goods, 7.39 cents; printed piece goods, 7.1 cents; (in 1879. plain piece goods, 7.38 cents; printed piece goods, 7.14 cents.)

While our American plain goods are valued at almost double, our printed goods are valued at less than those of Great Britain. The volume of the trade in printed goods in China, however, is relatively of small moment when compared with the plain goods, being only 36,000,000 yards of the former to 411,000,000 yards of the latter.

The exports of cotton goods from France to China, according to the latest official returns, amount to about $1,315,000. All but $3,000 worth of these are goods in transit, from Switzerland and Germany, so that it may be said that French cottons enter the Chinese market to a very limited extent.

The reports and the extracts from the reports of our consuls in China, concerning the cotton-goods trade of that country, and the best methods to be adopted for the development of our trade therein, would occupy too much space in this letter. Those who may be interested in this phase of the subject are referred to the supplement for a compilation of the most interesting reports covering the whole question.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF JAPAN.

According to the returns of the Japanese customs, the imports of cotton manufactures into Japan, during the fiscal year 1880, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn ..... pounds..	38, 383, 445	$7, 826, 000
Shirtings:		
gray ..... yards..	60, 426, 214	2, 955, 000
white ..... do...	1, 474, 900	93, 000
dyed ..... do...	3, 039, 893	216, 000
twilled ..... do...	1, 388, 900	101, 000
Drills ..... do...	753, 686	50, 000
Brocades ..... do...	273, 840	31, 000
Lawns ..... do...	4, 758, 278	257, 000
T-cloth ..... do...	1, 809, 618	110, 000
Cotton:		
velvets ..... do...	3, 641, 431	698, 000
satins ..... do...	3, 501, 093	360, 000
Prints and chintzes ..... do...	3, 803, 388	246, 000
Turkey red ..... do...	8, 520, 253	525, 000
All other ..... do...	1, 958, 161	280, 000
Total piece goods	95, 349, 520	5, 926, 000
Total yarn and piece goods	.....	13, 752, 000

The share of the principal countries in the foregoing trade, according to the same authority, was as follows:

IMPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn ..... pounds..	32, 518, 854	$6, 524, 000
Shirtings:		
gray ..... yards...	60, 386, 183	$2, 952, 000
white ..... do....	1, 467, 758	92, 000
dyed ..... do....	3, 008, 689	212, 000
twills ..... do....	1, 380, 212	100, 000
Drills ..... do....	749, 450	50, 000
Brocades ..... do....	269, 340	31, 000
Lawns ..... do....	4, 758, 253	257, 000
T-cloth ..... do....	1, 809, 618	110, 000

Imports from Great Britain—Continued.

Description.		Quantity.	Value.
Cotton:			
velvets	yards	3,610,798	$693,000
satins	do	3,475,985	357,000
Prints and chintzes	do	3,506,744	224,000
Turkey reds	do	8,366,727	518,000
All other piece goods	do	661,883	130,000
Total piece goods	do	93,451,620	5,726,000
Total imports			12,250,000

By the foregoing statements it is shown that England monopolizes the cotton goods trade of Japan, leaving only $1,500,000 to be distributed among the other countries, as follows: France, $12,567; Germany, $33,830; the United States, $27,060; China, 1,605; India, $1,267,000 (yarn); Switzerland, $45,300; Belgium, $354.

Exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to Japan during the calendar year 1880, *according to British official returns.*

Description.		Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn	pounds	26,912,200	$5,497,000
Plain piece goods	yards	35,501,300	$1,925,000
Printed piece goods	do	25,539,300	2,280,000
Mixed piece goods	do	330,800	58,000
Total piece goods	do	61,471,400	4,263,000
All other goods			24,000
Total			9,784,000

The marked difference between the Japanese returns of the imports of British cottons during the year ending June 30, 1880, and the British returns as above given—a difference of over 32,000,000 yards, and $2,466,000—is not easy to understand. The Japanese returns for the last six months of the year 1880, not being at hand, it is impossible to say whether a diminution sufficient to harmonize the returns of both countries occurred during that time.

According to French official returns the exports of cotton goods from France to Japan amount to $750,000 annually. In this total export French goods do not amount to more than $5,000. Doubtless the greater portion of these exports from France were British cottons, as all Europe, outside of England, according to Japanese returns, does not send to Japan very much over $100,000 per annum.

According to official returns, the exports of cotton goods from the United States to Japan during the fiscal year 1880, consisted of 134,731 yards of plain piece goods, valued at $13,616; printed piece goods, 27,886 yards, valued at $2,496, and all other cottons to the value of $17,219, making a total of 162,617 yards, and$33,331, or $6,271 more than the Japanese returns credited us with during the same year.

The prices of British and American cottons exported to Japan, according to the foregoing official returns, were as follows:

British: Yarn, 20.43 cents per pound; plain piece goods, 5.43 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 8.93 cents per yard.

American: Plain piece goods, 10.9 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 8.95 cents.

Great efforts are being made in Japan for the development of the cultivation of raw cotton and for the manufacture of the same into material suitable for the home demand. In February, 1880, an exhibition for the promotion of cotton culture in Japan was opened in Osaka, at which 650 exhibitors, representing almost every province in the country, were represented. In a report from Consul Stahl, concerning this exhibition, it is stated that 70,000,000 pounds of the staple thus raised is consumed in the country annually. It is estimated that the native manufactures of cotton goods amount to more than $12,000,000 a year, and that the industry is rapidly increasing. Notwithstanding all the efforts which have been made to produce this staple, it is asserted that the cotton is coarse, and, as a consequence, the manufactures are inferior to the imported goods.

Consul Van Buren, under date of February 4, 1881, reports as follows concerning the cotton goods trade of Japan:

At the present prices of production of cotton yarn in the United States, as I have very frequently had occasion to remark, I do not think it possible for us to compete with Great Britain, and so, too, with most of our cotton manufactures. With regard to the heavy sizing practiced by the English manufacturers of their white cotton goods for the eastern markets, I am told that such goods are appreciated by the people of China and Japan for use as linings or inside fillings for winter garments. They claim that the sizing does not injure the goods while adding greatly to their weight and warmth. I have heretofore observed that it was doubtful if, in the long run, it would pay our manufacturers to cheapen the quality of their goods in order to afford them at a lower price; but may it not be worth their while to inquire into the subject in the light I have now presented it, so as to determine if they should not enter into competition with England for this growing and valuable trade? Goods made especially for this market of lighter weight and prepared in the manner desired by the people could be sold, and the question whether it should be done is important enough to merit the most serious consideration.

In machinery, also, and in the cheaper woolen goods, as well as in groceries, provisions, butter, leather, lamps and fittings, gumware, &c., I should suppose that our country could and should secure a much larger portion of the trade.

In his annual report for the year 1879, Consul-General Van Buren wrote as follows on this same subject:

From the large trade in cotton goods the United States seems to be almost entirely shut out. I have endeavored, in various ways, to seek encouragement for our merchants and manufacturers to compete with the English for this trade, but cannot bring myself to offer a single inducement to that end. Our manufactures are too good, and therefore too dear, for this market. I sincerely hope we will not depreciate the quality of our goods for the sake of this competition; but, while keeping up their excellent quality, we should offer them at the lowest possible figure, until, by gradual experience, the mass of the people come to realize their very great superiority and substantial cheapness.

From the prices of American cottons above quoted, it is seen that British plain piece goods are only a fraction over one-half the price of the American goods, while the printed goods are very nearly equal in price. Taking Consul-General Van Buren's remarks into consideration in connection with the price of our plain piece goods exported to Japan, it would seem that no attempt has been made by our manufacturers to compete with the British in cheap and inferior goods, and that our trade with Japan in plain piece goods is confined to supplying the very limited demand, thus far, of that market for high-priced and superior cotton goods. It therefore remains with our manufacturers to decide whether they will continue to supply this select demand alone, or whether they cannot also compete for a share of the trade in such low-priced goods as seem to be in universal requisition in Eastern countries.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF PERSIA.

Great Britain appears to be the only country in Europe which has a trade of any consequence in cotton goods with Persia.

The exports of British cotton to that country during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn and twist.....pounds..	322,100	$78,000
Plain piece goods.....yards..	8,413,700	559,000
Printed piece goods.....do....	1,787,500	170,000
Total piece goods.....	10,201,200	729,000
Total exports.....	.....	807,000

There being so many fields for the enlargement of our cotton-goods trade more convenient and possible, for the present at least, than Persia, its trade is included herein more to complete a general review of the world's cotton-goods market than with any purpose of inducing our manufacturers to enter into competition for a share therein, although in 1877 Mr. Schuyler, then consul-general at Constantinople, wrote as follows concerning the possibilities of developing American trade in Persia, and certainly nothing has happened since then to alter the conditions which he described:

POSSIBILITIES OF TRADE WITH PERSIA.

An opening for a trade in American manufactures would apparently be found in Persia. I do not now have at hand all the figures and facts on which my belief is founded. It is based in great measure on a survey of the Persian trade which I made some years ago, and on conversations with intelligent Persians and foreigners who have visited Persia for commercial purposes. The Persian embassy in St. Petersburg, to whom I presented some gentlemen interested in the subject, entered very warmly into the idea. I was told that the Persian Government disliked a commercial dependence either on England or Russia; that it would hail with delight the introduction into Persia of American capital, or at least capital managed by Americans and under American control; and that it would give every facility to Americans by granting them concessions which the jealousy of Russia and England prevented being given to the subjects of either. For this end it was thought desirable for our government to send a special commissioner to Teheran, or at least establish a consulate at Bender-Bushir on the Persian Gulf, or at Bassora (Basra). Of course it is impossible to trust to vague promises of this kind, no matter by whom they may be inspired, but there is much truth in the statement that the clashing of foreign influences in Persia is detrimental to the development of the country. As a single example I cite the fact of the concession for railways granted a few days ago by the Persian Government to Baron Reuter, an English subject, being canceled through intrigues having their origin in the Russian legation at Teheran and the foreign office at St. Petersburg. The Russians feared lest, by means of this concession, English influence should become paramount in Persia. Under such circumstances, perhaps Americans, who have no political aims upon the country, might come between the jealous rivals and gain a commercial advantage.

Any American trade with Persia would necessarily have to be carried on by the Persian Gulf, and the first requisite would be the establishment of a consul at Bender-Bushir (as is allowed by the treaty of 1856) to protect the traders from improper interference, and have jurisdiction over them. The route through the Black Sea, and via the Transcaucasus or the Caspian, to Persia, would be too long for American trade, and subjected, both in Turkey and in Russia, to vexatious exactions and delays, besides being in Russian hands. Those via Trebizond and via Aleppo are even worse, and are becoming disused.

In 1875 the exports from Persia by the Trebizond route amounted in value to about $1,375,000, and the imports into Persia to $4,470,000. Of these imports $3,770,000 came from Great Britain, and $200,000 from France. The amount of cotton goods sent to Persia by this route was $4,050,000, of sugar $166,000, and of tea $158,000. Even the trade in sugar and tea will show the possibility of American enterprise in this direction.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF AUSTRALASIA.

The exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to Australasia during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn	None.	None.
Piece goods:		
Plain.....yards..	29, 892, 500	$2, 867, 000
Printed.....do....	33, 790, 800	3, 431, 000
Mixed.....do....	1, 990, 600	267, 000
Total piece goods	65, 673, 900	6, 565, 000
Lace and patent net goods		433, 000
Hosiery:		
Stockings and socks		826, 000
Other sorts		87, 000
Sewing thread		253, 000
All other		510, 000
Total exports		8, 674, 000

The distribution of the foregoing among the several colonies was as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
To West Australia:		
Piece goods	264, 200	$28, 500
All other		8, 530
Total		37, 030
To South Australia:		
Piece goods	7, 090, 100	675, 500
All other		270, 000
Total		945, 500
To Victoria:		
Piece goods	27, 144, 900	2, 775, 000
All other		840, 000
Total		3, 615, 000
To New South Wales:		
Piece goods	19, 681, 300	1, 954, 000
All other		612, 000
Total		2, 566, 000
To Queensland:		
Piece goods	2, 879, 200	301, 000
All other		78, 000
Total		379, 000
To Tasmania:		
Piece goods	1, 061, 500	106, 900
All other		17, 500
Total		124, 400
To New Zealand:		
Piece goods	7, 437, 700	714, 000
All other		277, 000
Total		991, 000
Fiji Islands:		
Total cotton exports thereto		6, 585
Grand total	65, 558, 000	9, 664, 015

It will be noticed that the exports by colonies are greater by $990,000 than the exports to Australasia, but the British official returns from which both statements are taken do not explain the discrepancy. It is probable, however, that the difference represents the intercolonial trade.

Taking the lowest of the foregoing statements and comparing it with the exports during the year 1879 and it shows a gain of $1,961,000.

The exports of cotton goods from the United States to Australasia during the fiscal year 1880 consisted of piece goods, plain, 71,408 yards, valued at $10,562; printed piece goods, 3,578 yards, valued at $541; all other cottons, $13,110—total, 74,986 yards and $24,216, a decrease of $43,294 from the preceding year, which decrease occurred principally in plain goods.

The average price per yard of British and American cottons exported to Australasia, according to the foregoing valuations, was as follows:

British plain piece goods, 9.59 cents; printed piece goods, 10.15 cents.

American piece goods, plain, 14.79 cents; piece goods, printed, 15.12 cents.

It will be observed that the quality of cotton goods consumed in Australasia is of a very high order, but the difference, even here, between British and American prices is remarkable.

In regard to the outlook for an increase in the American cotton-goods trade in Australia, the following extracts from consular reports having a bearing thereon are presented, going back for some years, in order to show that either our consuls did not fully understand the wants of the market or that our manufacturers have not brought the necessary influences to bear in order to secure their proper share.

In a report from Consul Williams, showing the increase in the imports of American manufactures of various sorts into New South Wales during the year 1877, the following extract appears:

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS.

If, as our cotton manufacturers assert, they can make goods as cheap as in England, I feel confident that certain descriptions might be largely sold here, as their superior quality has been recognized for the past twenty years. I mention these matters as indicating a growing attention to American productions.

In Mr. Williams's report for the year 1878 appears the following passages in relation to American trade in the same colony:

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

As stated under the head of imports and exports, there was an increase in imports of about $1,000,000, or nearly 75 per cent. The principal increases were in agricultural implements, carriages, cottons, doors and sashes, fish, flour, fruit; instruments, musical and scientific; iron, steel, and castings; jams and jellies, jewelry, lampware, horses, machinery, kerosene and other oils, paints, paper hangings, pictures and paintings, pitch, tar, and resin plated-ware, preserves, printing materials, provisions, quicksilver, saddlery and harness, slates, stationary and books, timber, tobacco and cigars, turnery and wooden-ware, woolen goods, &c. A large proportion of these goods are imported by local houses, and I have no means of learning results, or even the wholesale market prices, as a guide to shippers in the United States.

As a general remark, I may say that I do not think goods consigned here for sale leave a profit upon the prices at which they are invoiced. This has been especially the case with respect to carriages and buggies, which have been shipped in excessive quantity both from the United States and Canada, and are at present almost unsalable. I fear also, from what I can learn, that American cottons have not been paying, but I feel confident that they will do so in the end if by moderate shipments they are kept before the colonial public. Increasing quantities of American goods will probably be received here via London, as steamers of 3,000 to 4,000 tons now make the direct voyage in less than fifty days from London. The considerable increase in American trade

ast year was without doubt owing to exertions of agents sent by manufacturers to represent their goods at the exhibition held here in 1876, and it is almost certain that a considerable extension of American trade will result from a good representation at the international exhibition to be held here in August, 1879, of which I have already advised the Department.

Vice-Consul-General Lord, of Melbourne, in his report upon the trade of Victoria for the year 1878, wrote as follows:

I am happy to say that these colonies are attaching more attention year by year to the manufactures of the United States. During the last year, Victoria has been visited by representatives of many of our leading manufacturing firms.

The international exhibition to be held here in 1880 will tend to still further develop commerce and trade.

In his report upon the trade of New South Wales with the United States, Consul Williams again wrote in October, 1879:

Imports from the United States amounted to $3,026,757, being an increase of $683,215, and equal to nearly $5 per head of the entire population of the colony. The exports of the United States amounted to $627,187, being an excess of $100,276 over the previous year. The imports are to a great extent of a tentative character and such as if found suitable to the markets and better and cheaper than can be obtained from elsewhere will gradually work their way into favor, and the demand increases year by year. As an instance, American plain cottons are now sold in most of the principal retail establishments as American cottons, and are preferred to others; but in the finer descriptions of that class of goods we cannot compete with Great Britain, which in point of fact is the only country with which there is any competition.

Herewith will be found in their proper places the following reports concerning the cottons now imported and sold in the several colonies mentioned; two reports from Consul Griffin, of Auckland, New Zealand, one report from Consul-General Spencer, of Melbourne, and one report from the Fiji Islands by Commercial Agent Lasar.

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS IN VICTORIA.

The following extract from the report of Consul-General Spencer will at once show the insignificance of our trade with Australia in cotton goods and the reasons therefor:

In 1878 the total value of cotton goods imported into Victoria amounted to $3,227,765. The bulk of these goods was imported, either directly or indirectly, from England, whilst only a very small percentage, representing a value of $18,308, or only about three-fifths of one per cent. of the whole amount, came from the United States.

From this point of view the outlook would appear rather discouraging, but it is not necessary to look far for some of the causes which have contributed to this unpromising result.

From information received at this consulate from merchants who were formerly engaged in importing cotton goods directly from America, it appears that some years since such goods were decidedly popular in this market and in good demand; but the importers, who draw their supplies directly from New York and Boston, soon found that the wholesale dry-goods merchants in this city were able to undersell them, the latter having purchased the same brand of goods in London at lower prices than were current at the same date in the American market. The importers naturally inferred that these goods, representing the surplus stocks of American manufacturers, had been "slaughtered" or sacrificed in the London market with a view of maintaining prices at home. But whatever the explanation may have been, the effect was highly prejudicial to the further development of the American cotton trade in Australia. Merchants who had imported their goods directly from Boston or New York, when brought into competition with those who had purchased the same goods at lower prices in London, were compelled to sell out a sacrifice, and the trade was abandoned. They represent that when they import certain well-known brands of English goods they have no fears that any one else can purchase them at a lower figure and undersell them in the market. For this reason, such English brands as Horrocks and other well-known manufacturers command a preference over American goods of the same price and quality, and it has been found impossible to dispose of large parcels of the latter unless by making a concession on ruling prices. This prejudice would no doubt be

overcome in course of time, provided American cottons were shipped out regularly and were invariably available in the market at fixed prices. Hitherto, however, the trade has been intermittent, as American goods for the most part have only been shipped out here when domestic production has exceeded the home consumption. At present the direct shipments from the United States to this market are almost exclusively confined to the Wamsutta Mills, New Bedford, Mass., and consist mainly of consignments by the manufacturers to their agents here to be disposed of on their own account.

There appears to be no reason, aside from the one already named, why America should not compete favorably with England in the Australian cotton trade; but it would probably be the work of time, and might result in pecuniary loss at the outset. American cotton goods, at present imported, compare favorably with English manufactures of a similar description, and have given great satisfaction to the consumers. These consist, for the most part, of the finer qualities of shirtings and sheetings, plain and twilled, and of cambric muslins. The great demand, however, is for lower qualities than have hitherto been sent out here, such as are usually shipped in large quantities from England; but whether this class of goods can be supplied by the American manufacturers at a profit to themselves remains to be seen.

Cotton prints of American manufacture have not been imported here to any extent, and the probability of establishing a market for them seems problematical. England sets the fashions for this class of goods, and the principal houses here have their resident partners in London. By the use of the telegraph and several fast lines of steamers, merchants can replenish their stocks within seven weeks of giving their orders; whilst the average passage of sailing vessels from New York and Boston is over three months. Besides, there is no colored population here, as in India and the West Indies, to create a demand for unsalable or unfashionable patterns.

AMERICAN COTTONS IN NEW ZEALAND.

Consul Griffin, of Auckland, in one of his reports herewith, writes as follows:

Mr. Cosgrove is of the opinion that he should have little difficulty in opening a large trade in sheetings and calicoes of American manufacture. He is convinced of the excellence and cheapness, and superiority of their make, and regrets that the New York and Boston merchants do not offer as favorable terms of credit as the London merchants with whom he does business. The credit system prevails here to an extraordinary extent. Any consumer of ordinary standing can obtain credit of from three to six months. Almost every one has a bank account; and it is a common thing to see a man draw a check for 20 shillings, a sum less than $5 in American money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

The imports of cotton manufactures into Sweden are given in the customs returns of that country by weight instead of measure, while the value is not given at all. This renders it almost impossible to arrive at any approximation of the extent of the trade in foreign cottons in that country from this source.

The imports of yarn have steadily decreased from a little over 5,000,000 pounds in 1874 to 2,230,000 pounds in 1878—the latest official returns at hand.

The imports of raw cotton into Sweden have declined from 21,000,000 pounds in 1874 to 15,300,000 pounds in 1878.

These facts indicate a general decline in the Swedish cotton manufacture.

The imports of cotton goods into Norway during the year 1879 amounted, in weight, to 2,609,000 pounds, valued at $1,068,000. During the six years ending with 1879 there has been a steady decline in the imports of raw cotton and cotton manufactures.

Computing the value of the imports of cotton manufactures into Sweden on the basis of the value of the imports into Norway, the following may be considered a close approximation of the imports of both countries: Yarn, $1,162,000; manufactures, $1,732,000; total, $2,894,000.

According to a report from Consul Oppenheim, of Gothenburg, the number of cotton factories in Sweden in 1879 was 25, employing 3,492 operatives. The value of the product of these mills is estimated at $2,426,000.

The total number of spindles in Sweden and Norway is computed at 300,000.

The exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to Sweden and Norway during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	3,867,200	$972,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	6,477,300	407,000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	3,939,100	340,000
Total piece goods	10,416,400	747,000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	49,000
Sewing thread	.....	471,000
All other	.....	107,000
Total exports	.....	2,346,000

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Sweden and Norway during the year 1879, amounted to only $1,006,000, showing an increase in 1880 of $1,340,000.

There are no direct exports of cotton manufactures from the United States to Sweden and Norway, neither do the French returns note any exports from France thereto. All imports of cottons into Sweden and Norway, outside of those from England, must therefore come from Germany and Switzerland.

The average price of British yarns and piece goods exported to Sweden and Norway, according to the foregoing valuations, is as follows: Yarn and twist, 25.13 cents per pound; plain piece goods, 6.28 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 8.63 cents per yard.

In regard to our general trade opportunities in Sweden and Norway, and the drawbacks thereto, Mr. Stevens, minister resident at Stockholm, wrote as follows in the latter part of 1878:

Agricultural tools from American designs are now made in this country in considerable quantity, and those manufactured in Germany from American models, bearing the United States "trade-marks," are sold here at less price than the American; and these are the reasons why the amount of these productions imported from the United States is less in 1878 than in 1876. These foreign imitations are not equal in quality and finish to those of American manufacture.

Total of the trade—exports and imports—between Sweden and the United States in 1876, $4,068,500; total in 1878, $5,675,233.

It is probable that importations from the United States into this country will continue to increase. This is likely to be the result to some extent. The near neighborhood of England and Germany, of course, gives them great advantage in whatever they produce for exportation to this country. England is at a distance about one-fifth of the United States, and the commercial intercourse between the former and Sweden is necessarily very intimate. One-half of all the latter's exportable production is lumber and wood, and for these England is a near and ready market. The lumber-vessels built and run very economically, after discharging their lumber cargoes at the English ports, are compelled to take return freight at a very low figure.

The productions of the United States not only have the long distance to come, but the want of continued steam lines operates seriously to augment their cost before they reach the Swedish merchants and consumers. The fact that more than half of all

American products consumed in this country are purchased at English and German ports, and appear among English and German importations, conclusively proves the large extra cost that is imposed on those productions ere they reach the Swedish consumers, largely to the loss of the American merchants and producers. And those which are shipped from American ports in foreign steamers must be transshipped once or twice ere they arrive at their destination. This "breaking of bulk" at English and German ports, the consequent delay, the liability to injury by the extra handling, the increased cost of freight, all tend to embarrass United States trade with Sweden and Norway.

Foreign steam lines that are continuous, as between the Atlantic ports of England, France, and Germany and the Atlantic ports of the United States, where there is constantly maintained a sharp competition, may serve the purposes of American trade nearly as well as American steam lines. But the countries with which we are not connected by continuous steam lines, with which our rivals in manufactures and trade have unbroken steam connection, can deal with us and we with them only at marked disadvantage.

In regard to the cotton-goods trade of Sweden, Consul Oppenheim, of Gothenburg, wrote, under date of October 1, 1879, as follows:

American cotton goods.—Of the cotton imported into this district only about 35 per cent. is of American growth. The spinners around Gothenburg make chiefly coarse goods, for which the East India staple can be used to greater advantage than ours. The import for the year ending June 30, 1878, was 29,342 bales, of which about 10,000 bales was American. Our cotton manufactures are but rarely seen here; not that there has been any neglect in attempting to introduce them, but the goods turned out by our mills are unsuitable to this market. The demand here is for bleached cloths from 28 to 32 inches wide, unsized and very substantial in texture; our goods are mostly 36 inches in width and do not have "body" enough. The English make a special article for the Swedish market, having every required quality, and even stamping upon each piece the quantity in Swedish measurement. The result is that they almost monopolize the trade, notwithstanding a rather heavy duty (about 11 cents per pound on bleached goods).

OUR TRADE WITH SWEDEN AND NORWAY IN 1880.

[From report by Mr. Stevens, minister resident at Stockholm.]

In my communication to the Secretary of State, of October, 1878, I stated the total of United States products which by direct and indirect trade reached Sweden and Norway during the year ending with that date to be $4,429,000. That estimate was carefully made up from data deemed reliable. I am confident that the amount of United States exports brought into the two countries in 1880 is greater than in 1878, and probably larger than in any preceding year. American goods and food products in the shops of the principal cities and towns show a marked increase and prominence. A large proportion of the United States exports which reach these countries are first brought to England or Germany, and thus do not show in the United States official tables as exported to Sweden and Norway. It is obviously to the disadvantage of the United States and of these countries that more of this trade is not direct, and is compelled to encounter so many expensive obstructions in the transit. The percentage of profits to the middlemen, the delays and expense of transshipment from one line of steamers to another, the increased cost of freights, all tend to make the price which the consumer pays for the articles much in excess of what the English and German consumers of the same article pay. Direct trade by a line of steamers, obviating delays, the necessity of middlemen, the expense of breaking bulk, &c., would decidedly lessen the price of the goods to the Scandinavian purchasers and consumers, and at the same time would increase the volume of the articles demanded, and thus take more cash, or its equivalent, to the United States.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF DENMARK.

Denmark imports very little, if any, raw cotton. The imports of cotton manufactures amounted in 1878 to 11,770,000 pounds. It is not easy to form any approximate idea of value or volume from returns given in this manner, but as the greater portion of the cotton manufactures imported into Denmark are British, the British returns will enable those interested to approximate the trade in all its details.

Exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to Denmark, 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn.....pounds..	3, 680, 600	$302, 000
Plain piece goods.....yards..	7, 351, 700	525, 000
Printed piece goods.....do....	3, 691, 000	340, 000
Total piece goods.....	11, 042, 700	865, 000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	48, 000
Hosiery.....	.....	15, 000
Sewing thread.....	.....	141, 000
Total exports.....	.....	1, 871, 000

The foregoing shows an increase, when compared with the exports during the year 1879, of about $250,000.

There are no exports of cotton goods from France to Denmark recorded in the French official returns.

The direct exports of American cottons to Denmark during the fiscal year 1880 consisted of 21,924 yards of plain piece goods valued at $2,812. This is the first recorded exportation of American cottons to Denmark, and, as such, may be looked upon as merely experimental.

The entire imports of cotton goods into Denmark may be set down as not exceeding $2,000,000 annually.

The average price of the British cottons sent to Denmark during the year 1880 was as follows: twist and yarn, 21.79 cents per pound; plain piece goods, 7.14 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 9.21 cents per yard.

The price of the plain piece goods exported from the United States, as above recorded, averaged 12.82 cents per yard.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF GERMANY.

The import of raw cotton into Germany during the year 1879 was a little greater than that of 1876, but considerably more than the imports of 1877 and 1878, viz:

1876.....	$3, 487, 000
1877.....	3, 184, 000
1878.....	2, 708, 000
1879.....	3, 558, 000

The yarns imported during the year 1879 were a little in excess of those of the preceding years—1876–1878—and amounted to $39,330,000, but as this amount embraced woolen as well as cotton yarns the exact value of the latter cannot be given.

The amount of raw cotton consumed in Germany during a series of years was as follows: 1873, 2,350,000 centners; in 1875, 2,281,000 centners; in 1876, 2,703,000 centners; in 1878, 2,224,000 centners; in 1879, 2,420,000.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Germany increased from 131,000 centners in 1873 to 241,000 and 235,000 in 1878 and 1879 respectively. It is hence evident that the exports of cotton manufactures have steadily increased, while the consumption of raw cotton has shown no material increase. It follows, therefore, that a large increase must have occurred in the imports of cotton yarns in order to account for the increase in the exports of cotton manufactures.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Germany during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn.....pounds..	28, 520, 700	$8, 136, 000
Plain piece goods .....yards..	21, 492, 400	1, 750, 000
Printed piece goods .....do....	21, 759, 700	2, 007, 000
Mixed piece goods.....do....	153, 700	24, 000
Total piece goods.....	43, 405, 800	3, 781, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	1, 045, 000
Hosiery.....	.....	170, 000
Sewing thread	.....	1, 215, 000
All other	.....	301, 000
Total	.....	14, 648, 000

Compared with the year 1879, the foregoing shows a decrease in yarns of over 3,000,000 pounds and $811,000; in piece goods, 10,000,000 yards and $892,000; in all a decrease of $2,772,000.

The exports of cotton goods from France to Germany amount to only about 503,000, French manufactures constituting thereof $432,000, the balance representing goods in transit.

The exports of cotton goods from the United States to Germany during the fiscal year 1880 consisted of piece goods, plain, 1,662,625 yards, valued at $123,141; printed piece goods, 175,516 yards, valued at $16,763; all other cottons, $26,125, making a total of $166,029.

The imports of cotton manufactures into the United States from Germany during the same year were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods.....	262, 789	$39, 727
Printed piece goods	155, 046	23, 317
Hosiery, shirts and drawers.....	.....	5, 582, 811
Jeans, denims, drillings.....	4, 322, 874	676, 504
All other	.....	9, 482, 589
Total imports from Germany.....	.....	15, 804, 948

The average prices of British cottons exported to Germany, as above, were as follows: twist and yarn, 28.52 cents per pound; plain piece goods, 8.14 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 9.22 cents per yard.

The prices of American cottons exported to Germany, as above, were: plain piece goods, 7.4 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 9.09 cents per yard.

Hence we see that the American were cheaper than the British manufactures.

In regard to the outlook for the enlargement of the trade in American cottons, the following extracts from consular reports will prove instructive.

Consul Potter, in his annual report upon the state of American trade in Würtemberg during the year 1877, thus referred to American cottons:

White cotton goods and prints of American manufacture are to be found here in the better class of shops. These fabrics cannot compete in price with similar German goods, but their superior quality has created a demand for them at prices considerably above those of the German fabrics.

CHEAP LABOR AND CHEAP MANUFACTURES.

[From a report by Consul Griggs, of Chemnitz.]

The Chemnitz district is noted as being one of the best markets in Europe in which to purchase various kinds of cheap goods. Scarcely any other country can compete with this in the manufacture of articles which can readily be produced by cheap hand labor. Manufacturers here are fully aware that they cannot compete with England or the United States in the production of the better grades of machine-made goods; but living as they do in a land where the poverty of the soil and density of the population compel the inhabitants to devote their time to other pursuits than farming, and surrounded as they are by a people who are willing to work for wages which are barely sufficient to purchase the plainest necessaries of life, they rightly feel that they are almost without competition in the manufacture of such goods as can be produced by the cheap labor of this district.

It is the cheap labor of Saxony alone which enables the manufacturers to place their goods, made of American cotton, upon the American market at lower figures than they can there be produced.

AMERICAN TRADE IN GERMANY.

[From a report by Consul-General Lee, of Frankfort-on-the-Main, 1879.]

In considering the ways and means for improving trade in American wares in this part of Germany, it has been my object to ascertain the objections, if any, made to those wares, and the obstacles to their sale. If manufacturers once understand precisely what hinders the marketing of their goods abroad, they will be far better prepared to overcome the hinderances than if only the favorable side is presented to them. For this reason the following words from an intelligent German dealer in American goods are here quoted:

"In a great measure the cause of failures in introducing American goods lies with the manufacturers. They are apt to forget that a country of old, established habits is not swift to adopt new things from across the sea. It takes a great deal of time, trouble, and expense to induce people to buy even a superior article if they are used to a different style. Now, I have had a great deal of experience with American manufactured goods. I credit your manufacturers for much energy and the excellent quality of their wares, but I find them much disinclined to adapt their productions to any other country than their own. The trade in cotton goods, which was very promising in the beginning, has become very small. A great many trials have been made in introducing American boots and shoes, but the styles and shapes were such as to preclude the possibility of success.

"Another cause of failure lies in the impatience of American manufacturers to build up a trade suddenly. They naturally like to have big orders to begin with, and are apt to despise too much the difficulties of educating an old country in the use of unaccustomed foreign articles.

"American harvest tools, which have become popular in this country, will remain so if the many rival patterns which are sometimes sold cheap at the expense of quality do not bring these articles into bad repute. American mechanics' tools do not find their way rapidly into this market, because the people cling too firmly to their old habits. A good many very practical machines for dairy and household purposes find a ready market. Boot-making machinery, as well as many agricultural machines, are successfully imported; also shoe-pegs, for which America has nearly a monopoly.

"To introduce American goods successfully, manufacturers must not be afraid to venture some samples and incur some expense. Intelligent agents for the various manufacturers ought to canvass the districts, show samples, and make people aware of their merits."

AMERICAN AND GERMAN COTTON MANUFACTURES.

[From a report by Consul Wilson, of Nuremberg, 1879.]

The new German tariff, which goes into operation on 1st of January, 1880, will have the effect of retarding the continued sale of some of our staples that have been introduced here. For instance, the sale of bleached cottons in Germany cannot longer be counted upon. An enterprising importing firm here, adverted to at length in my report of last year, who had been at great pains to introduce our bleached domestics into this market, and who had until the last few months great hopes of success, inform me that since last March the prices of American shirtings have steadily advanced in the United States, in some cases as much as 20 per cent.; in no case less than 10 per cent. In

conformity with the advance of the raw material, German manufacturers have likewise shown a tendency to advance prices, but have contented themselves with an increase of about 5 per cent. This inclination, however, has gradually subsided again. There are large stocks of raw material on hand at previous low prices, and business is so bad that German manufacturers will gladly sell at old prices; hence we are unable to compete. Aside from this, we shall have, on and after the 1st of January proximo, the new German tariff referred to. Bleached cottons, which have heretofore paid 60 reichs-marks per 100 kilograms, will thereafter pay 100 marks per 100 kilograms.

Now, look at the following calculation: A medium good quality of American shirtings will cost 10 cents, or 42¼ pfennige, and will weigh per yard 125 grams; hence the yard will cost, import duty, 12.50 pfennige (about 3 cents), or 30 per cent. ad valorem. The raw material being imported free of duty, the manufactured goods, however, costing 30 per cent., it is hardly to be supposed that the United States can produce the article so much cheaper as to counterbalance this protective tariff.

The consulates are often in receipt of letters of inquiry from our manufacturers and exporters and others interested in placing our productions upon the market, some of which can be answered satisfactorily and others cannot. I believe that depots, warehouses, &c., have been established in the seaports of Hamburg and Bremen, where almost every variety of our wares, provisions, &c., are on exhibition and offered for sale, and from whence the retailers draw their supplies. But the objections to these places are their remoteness from the center of population and consumption.

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

[From a report by the Consular Agent at Mayence, 1879.]

Great efforts have been made by competent and able parties to encourage the import trade from the United States to this district. They have, however, failed on account of the difficulties they encountered, partly owing to the general depression of trade and to other causes, among which chiefly the ignorance of tradespeople here as to the superiority of American goods justifying their somewhat higher cost, and further that the American trade declines consigning goods in order to make their qualities known abroad. It has also occurred that inferior American goods have been shipped and been paid for, resulting in losses to the importer, and thus discouraging the continuation of the business. American manufacturers willing to consign goods of their usual good qualities at fair prices, not the inferior, for which they have no market at home, would, no doubt, in the end find a good market here.

HINTS TO AMERICAN EXPORTERS.

[From a report by Consul Winser, of Sonneberg, 1879.]

Again I venture to call the attention of some of our exporters to a few points which I drew to their notice in my dispatch of January 15, 1878. They ought to be warned against their overanxiety to make large sales at the start, by which means they often overstock the German market with their manufactures before a paying trade has been fairly opened. The consequence of undue haste is forced sales at ruinous prices, working great injury to dealers who bought the earlier shipments, and making them chary of handling American goods a second time. Many kinds of articles, on account of their novelty, can only be introduced to consumers by the expenditure of much patience and perseverance, meeting with slow sale at the beginning. I have also heard complaints that if the first renewal orders from Germany reach the American manufacturer at a period when he is busy producing for the domestic trade, in which, perhaps, better profits are to be realized, he is apt to leave the foreign demand unfilled until it is too late, the German dealer losing patience and canceling the order.

It likewise frequently happens, I am told, that manufacturers fix the sample lots at lower prices than they ask for the first orders. Practice of this sort naturally leaves a bad impression on the minds of dealers, obliging them to fill orders already taken at more or less loss. Again, it is said that our manufacturers produce more goods than they can well dispose of, and unsettle the trade by filling each succeeding order at a lower price.

Finally, having overstocked the market, some cases are cited of manufacturers who have established salesrooms in Germany themselves, and disposed of their wares at prices far lower than their former largest customers could afford to sell, often on long credit. In many branches of manufacture traveling agents of American houses sell their wares to retailers at the same rates which wholesale dealers have been required to pay, thus cutting the ground from under the feet of the latter, to whom is due the credit of having introduced, after infinite pains and trouble, these very goods to the German people. Our manufacturers are also reproached, to some extent, with selling goods of deteriorated quality after the first few shipments, thereby bringing our productions generally into disrepute, which, undeserved though it be in the main, is not

easy to refute. I have thought it my duty to mention these animadversions, although I am in no position to indorse their accuracy. If, however, real ground of complaint exists, it would be vastly to the advantage of our export trade if every effort were made to give satisfaction at this juncture, when our productions, to a great extent, are only taken on trial. A permanent and lucrative business on our part with Germany can only be attained gradually. To secure a flourishing business the utmost care must be exercised to deal fairly and honestly, as well as to prove the real merits of commodities. The characteristic dislike of the German people to novelties which are not of their own invention, and their conservative views with regard to the excellence of their own productions, are intensified into bitter prejudice often against the products of American skill and industry—a prejudice which is fostered by the belief that we are really about to take rank with some other nations of the world as exporters of manufactured goods, although our protective tariff acts as a barrier to the easy entry of the products of other lands within our borders. There are dissatisfaction and jealousy enough to contend with before our wares secure lively sales and a firm footing in Germany. It is the fashion now to decry them in the interest of domestic products, and our exporters can best overcome the obstacles, real and artificial, to their final success by the utmost caution, prudence, and tact in their initial efforts toward building up a permanent business.

A minor matter of great importance, to which I wish again to call attention, is the style of our packing-cases. They are generally too small, and always too heavy in proportion to their size. Packing-cases should be increased in dimensions and decreased in weight. In this way much incidental expense would be spared to European importers. Heavy packing-cases not only uselessly add to the cost of railroad freight by their superfluous weight, but also, in many cases, occasion wasteful expenditure at the custom-houses, where specific duties are levied upon the gross weight of the package and its contents. Our packing-cases are also open to the objection that they are easily broken open by thieves at the railroad stations and the shipping docks, thus accounting for the unusually large claims upon our exporters for "shortage." Perhaps the use of wire nails would obviate this fault. The best packing-cases in all respects, are those made in France. They are probably more expensive than ours, but it should be the aim of our exporters to imitate their excellencies as far as possible. Very often, also, our goods are carelessly packed, being simply placed in cartons without being enveloped in paper or secured by loose paper to prevent movement during ransport, and so it frequently happens that they reach their destination scratched and damaged. In this connection it may be mentioned that as higher rates are imposed by the new German tariff on many American goods, and the duties being specific, our manufacturers should strive to lessen the weight of all articles without detracting from their strength and durability. More artistic shapes should be aimed at in some styles of goods, adding to the lightness and elegance of the design and at the same time diminishing the bulk.

HOW TO INTRODUCE AMERICAN TRADE INTO GERMANY.

[From a report by Consul Phelps, of Prague—1880.]

But I must remark that too many American merchants and manufacturers are under the impression that to introduce new goods into a foreign market it is only necessary to ask a consul to furnish "a reliable agent" for their sale, and accompany the request with a circular in English describing the article. This is a mistake. No man fights a battle three thousand miles from the field of action. This system may do between American cities, aided by information obtained through commercial agencies; it is not applicable to a foreign land. The American and English manufacturers and merchants who have achieved marked success have employed agents abroad speaking the language of the country, established headquarters in Europe, visiting in person the cities and towns, carrying samples of goods and models of machines, explaining the details, answering questions, and removing objections. The business men most desirable as agents in a foreign country, speaking no English, immersed hourly in their own business, generally have little time or patience to study out a paper description of an unknown and unheard-of article. The circular would naturally be treated here as a similar circular in a foreign language would be treated by a busy American merchant. The article recommended must be seen and its superiority shown before they are interested, and they must negotiate personally with the owner or his accredited agent, who can supply the goods forthwith.

Mr. Walscheid, of Solingen, a German-American merchant engaged in the introduction of American manufactures into Germany, wrote, in November, 1880, as follows to Consul Stanton, of Barmen:

Dry goods, cloth, trimmings, cutlery, &c., manufactured in this country, are largely exported to the United States, and the interests of merchants lie in the export and not in the import trade, wherefore it is difficult to find the person who is honestly interested in the import of American goods.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF HOLLAND.

As the greater portion of all imports into Holland are re-exported, and as no distinction is made in Dutch customs returns between the outflow of native and foreign manufactures, it is not easy to arrive at the exact condition of the cotton-goods industry of that country.

During the year 1879—the latest official returns at hand—the imports of cotton yarns amounted to $10,798,000, nearly all of which came from England, while the exports of the same amounted to $6,324,000, nearly all of which went to Germany, leaving yarns to the value of only $4,674,000 for home consumption. The greater portion of these imports and exports were entered at and cleared from Rotterdam.

The average price per pound of the imported yarns was 49.75 cents per kilogram, while that of the exported was 48.14 cents per kilogram. The average price, however, of that special quality of yarn which was re-exported was as follows: When imported 48 cents per kilogram; when re-exported 48.20 cents per kilogram.

The imports into and exports from Holland of cotton goods were as follows during the year 1879:

Description.	Imports.	Exports.
Plain piece goods	$1,364,000	$3,427,000
Printed piece goods	2,585,000	801,000
All other	925,000	.....
Total	4,874,000	4,228,000

The greater portion of the foregoing imports came from England, and the greater portion of the exports went to Dutch India.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Holland during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds	34,644,900	$8,257,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards	19,686,300	1,337,000
Printed piece goods ..... do	22,330,000	1,968,000
Mixed piece goods ..... do	1,360,800	146,000
Total piece goods ..... do	43,377,100	3,451,000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	195,000
Hosiery	.....	15,000
Sewing thread	.....	437,000
All other	.....	170,000
Total exports	.....	12,525,000

As compared with the year 1879, the foregoing shows a decrease of nearly $1,500,000, principally in yarns, the decrease in piece goods being only $230,000.

The exports of cotton goods from France to Holland must be of no importance, as they are not mentioned in the French official returns of trade.

The exports of American cotton goods from the United States to Holland during the fiscal year 1880 consisted of plain piece goods, 18,878

yards, valued at $2,006; and miscellaneous goods valued at $1,841; making a total of only $3,847.

The average price of British goods exported to Holland, according to the foregoing valuations, was as follows: plain piece goods, 6.85 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 8.81 cents per yard; twist and yarns, 26.94 cents per yard.

The American plain piece goods, as above, averaged 10.63 cents per yard.

Two very interesting reports (which were accompanied by samples and prices) on the cotton goods trade of Holland, from Consuls Eckstein and Winter, of Amsterdam and Rotterdam, respectively, will be found in their proper places. Both give assurance that if our cotton manufacturers take the requisite means for the enlargement of our trade in that country the results will justify their best efforts.

Consul Eckstein, of Amsterdam, draws the attention of our manufacturers to the fact that "The trading society of the Netherlands," whose principal office is in that city, is disposed to undertake the introduction of American cotton yarns into the Dutch markets.

Consul Winter, of Rotterdam, in his report, herewith, says:

> Should our manufacturers of cotton yarns and cotton fabrics send over agents to make the acquaintance of Dutch merchants, to familiarize themselves with the lines of goods in demand, and to learn the Hollanders' way of doing business, and at the same time introduce their goods by exhibiting samples with price lists, and inducements to the Dutch merchants, there is no doubt but that a satisfactory and successful trade would result from such enterprise.

Consul Eckstein, in his report on the cotton goods trade of Holland, refers to a former report of his concerning the best method for the increase of American trade in that country, as containing all that could be written upon this very important subject. The following extracts contain all that is material to the subject at issue in that report:

HOW TO INCREASE OUR TRADE WITH HOLLAND.

Holland is not only a rich country, as is generally well known, but the wealth of the Netherlands is more widely distributed than is the case in some of the other European countries; in fact all classes are comparatively prosperous, nor is its prosperity likely to be at any time much affected by any kind of continental complications.

To this must be added that Holland carries on a large and generally profitable export trade with its Indian colonies—hence it will become obvious that it would be important if our citizens could secure to themselves such portion of the trade of this country as their many and great facilities warrant them to compete for.

The extent of this trade and the desirableness of obtaining as large a share of it as possible, are perfectly realized and appreciated by manufacturers and producers in England and on the Continent. Their agents and represensatives are constantly found in this city and in other cities and towns of Holland, comparatively in larger numbers, I am credibly informed, than in any other country in Europe.

I have excellent opportunities to meet and converse with a very large number of those gentlemen, and as the nature of their employment and almost constant traveling in different European countries makes them peculiarly familiar with all matters pertaining to trade and commerce, it would seem that any opinions expressed or statements made by them, respecting American manufactures and products, and their chances for finding a constantly increasing demand in Europe, are deserving of notice.

From all that they very generally and frankly admit and state, it is both plain and reasonable to infer that the present is a most propitious time for securing an increased demand and gaining a lasting foothold for American manufactures in Europe. To secure a greater share of the trade of this country, it would seem necessary for those wishing to secure it to adopt such measures as will make both merchants and consumers more familiar with American made articles than they have been up to the present.

Printed publications and letter writing will not effect much in this direction among a people who, like the Hollanders, are so slow in making innovations of any kind, but samples of goods ought to be exhibited and kept exhibited where they would constantly come under the notice of the multitude.

Such goods as are greatly superior in quality, and consequently much more costly than similar goods made in Europe, can only find a market here by being consigned to first-class houses, who will undertake to introduce and recommend them.

As merchants can make their profit on the cheaper articles of other countries as well, no matter how much inferior, they are unwilling to order for their own account the superior American made articles.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF BELGIUM.

The very imperfect system in regard to the collection of trade statistics which prevails in Belgium renders it almost impossible to arrive at any very definite approximation concerning the cotton goods trade and industry of that country.

From the latest consular reports it appears that the general imports of cotton manufactures into Belgium are about as follows: Yarns, $6,800,000; tissues, $7,400,000. Of the foregoing, the cotton goods entered for consumption amounted to $2,200,000, showing that $4,400,000 were goods in transit. Of the yarns imported, no mention is made in Belgian returns of their re-export, hence it is inferred that they are nearly all consumed in the country.

During the year 1879 the exports of Belgian cotton goods amounted to $3,132,000. There is no mention of any export of cotton yarns. It appears, therefore, that Belgium is yet dependent upon foreign countries for cotton yarns and tissues to the amount of $9,000,000.

The imports of raw cotton into Belgium, for home consumption, amount to about 44,000,000 pounds annually. Although the greater part thereof is American it does not reach the Belgian consumer direct from the United States, but is bought in France and England. For instance, during the year 1878 there were imported at Antwerp 20,948,000 pounds of cotton from France, 9,822,000 pounds from England, and only 10,300,000 pounds from the United States, the country of its production.

In commenting on this indirect trade and the unhappy results which flow therefrom, Secretary Evarts in his annual letter on our commercial relations with foreign countries for the year 1879, says:

The indirect mode of placing American cotton and cotton goods on the Belgian market, as indicated by Consul Wilson, may account for the small sales thereof, and the high figures asked therefor. Doubtless the commission exacted on these goods by the English and German merchants, coupled with that secondary interest taken in pushing the sales of American manufactures, which might interfere with the sales of their own cottons, has much to do with the retarding of this trade in Belgium. Direct dealing with the Belgian merchants, added to the lively interest our manufacturers would take in pushing the sales of their own goods, would, doubtless, result in dividing the trade in foreign cottons in that country.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Belgium during the year 1880, were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn.....pounds..	5,861,900	$2,057,000
Plain piece goods.....yards..	17,293,900	1,409,000
Printed piece goods.....do...	5,764,800	588,000
Mixed piece goods.....do...	247,900	39,000
Total piece goods.....	23,306,600	2,036,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	670,000
Hosiery.....	.....	34,000
Sewing thread.....	.....	243,000
All other.....	.....	233,000
Total exports.....	.....	5,273,000

The annual exports of cotton goods from France to Belgium amount to about $1,460,000, nearly all of which are French manufactures, the cottons in transit not amounting to $50,000.

The exports of American cotton goods to Belgium during the fiscal year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Plain piece goods	105,196	$11,048
Printed piece goods	7,395	759
All other		724
Total		12,531

Perhaps Belgium is the only country besides where the exports comprise so large a proportion of manufactured articles This, taken into consideration with the further fact that five-sixths of the manufactured exports of the country find markets in the four leading manufacturing countries of Europe, viz, England, France, Germany, and Holland, at once places Belgium, relatively speaking, at the head of manufacturing nations. The inference is plain: The Belgian markets are the best protected from foreign manufactures of any in Europe, and hence our manufacturers can only expect to introduce into and enlarge therein a cotton-goods trade by the most direct and positive means. A thorough understanding of the Belgian markets and people is therefore necessary to enable our manufacturers to overcome the material obstacles which will necessarily be encountered by those seeking to introduce their goods into that country.

In 1877, Consul Weaver, then at Antwerp, wrote as follows concerning this phase of the subject:

HOW TO INTRODUCE AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

From a knowledge of the efforts heretofore made and the unsatisfactory success attending them, I am induced to recommend the following conditions as necessary to any successful introduction of the manufactures of the United States on the Antwerp market:

1st. A demand must be created for our productions and styles of manufactured articles. This can be done only by placing the articles on the market at an actual loss, if necessary, and get them introduced into the leading establishments and houses of the country. To do this, prejudices have to be broken down and tastes formed. The element of economy is the most powerful appeal that can possibly be made to upturn the former and implant the latter; when the demand is secured it will be time enough to expect compensation.

2d. The articles must be placed upon the market by capable and honest parties. Confidence has been lost. Bad faith and serious losses on both sides have attended nearly every attempt hitherto made to develop the sale of American articles. To consign goods to unreliable and incapable parties is to court failure.

3d. To avoid the difficulty, branch houses should be located in the principal cities of Belgium under the immediate direction of an interested and responsible member of the home firm, and from these traveling commercial agents could, by means of samples, sell directly to retail houses, avoiding as far as possible the expenses attending the system of selling through middle-men. To appreciate fully this last remark, we need only refer to the frequent appeals that are made to the law to adjust difficulties arising from deception and misrepresentation. These expenses have become so great that consumers prefer to pay a big price for an article known to be good, rather than have the risk of importing what may prove an inferior one. By putting the articles on the market through a responsible party these difficulties would be to a large extent removed and confidence restored.

Consul Wilson, of Brussels, who has given the subject of the introduction of American manufactures into Belgium much consideration,

and who has written well and carefully in regard to it, in his review of Belgian and American trade for 1879 says:

There is one article of our production the exports of which to this country, both in its raw and manufactured forms, I believe might with proper effort be greatly extended. While it is universally admitted that the United States is the great cotton producing country of the world, it is a singular fact that in 1878 Belgium purchased from France raw cotton to the value of 16,355,000 francs, and from the German Zollverein to the value of 24,769,000 francs; while her direct importation from the United States only amounted to 8,794,000 francs.

She bought from England in 1878 of cotton goods and thread to the amount of 57,905,000 francs, and from the Zollverein to the value of 23,744,000 francs; but not a single yard from the United States.

From personal inquiry among the dealers in these goods, I find that the bleached and unbleached cotton goods of American manufacture *which reach this country through England and Germany are regarded as superior in quality;* but as they are never sold so cheaply as the same class of goods of English or German manufacture, dealers are unable to realize large sales of them, and consequently continue to purchase English and German fabrics though of admitted inferior quality.

There can be but little doubt that we can furnish Belgium with both cotton and cotton goods as cheaply as either of these countries, and that with proper effort these large importations of this merchandise could be diverted from them, and made to swell the balance of our now prosperous foreign trade.

The average price of British cotton manufactures exported to Belgium during the year 1880 was as follows: Twist and yarn, 35.09 cents per pound; plain piece goods, 8.15 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 10.2 cents per yard. The price of American was as follows: Plain piece goods, 10½ cents per yard; printed piece goods, 10.02 cents per yard.

The superior quality of goods demanded by the Belgian markets is apparent from the foregoing quotations, and is in itself a very favorable point for American manufactures.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

As the history of the cotton-goods trade of the world is found, to a very large degree, in the statistics of the British cotton-goods trade—it being safe to say that where there is no British trade there is no foreign trade at all—and as these statistics are largely embraced in this letter, it is not considered necessary to enter into any extended review of that trade; everything deemed necessary to the elucidation of the points under consideration will be found in the concluding part of this letter.

A remarkable feature of the British piece-goods trade—for it has been generally believed that the various markets had been fully supplied with British goods, and that the annual production of the British mills had reached its maximum in 1877—is that the exports during the year 1880 (4,495,645,000 yards) were greater by 658,000,000 yards than the exports for any previous year in the history of the cotton-goods trade.

Whether this was due to an increased demand, caused by an improved condition of the world's trade, or to an anticipated demand, or whether it was a united effort of the British manufacturers for the complete possession of the several markets for the purpose of crushing out the manufacturers of those nations which might aspire to dispute British supremacy in this regard, cannot be stated at present. If due to the first cause, it goes to show that the cotton-goods supply of the world is not greater than the demand; if due to the latter cause, it should serve to convince our manufacturers that they can only win a place in the cotton-goods trade of the world by steady and tireless efforts.

In this connection the following statement, showing the exports of

British cotton yarns and cotton goods during the last twenty-four years, will prove interesting to our manufacturers:

Statement showing the exports of cotton yarns and cotton goods from Great Britain for twenty-four years, 1857 to 1880.

Years.	Yarns.		Piece goods of all sorts.			
			Plain piece goods.		Piece goods, printed.	
	Pounds.	Dollars.	Yards.	Dollars.	Yards.	Dollars.
1857	176, 921, 338	42, 287, 000	1, 154, 898, 664	69, 833, 000	819, 385, 205	69, 366, 000
1858	200, 016, 992	46, 554, 000	1, 524, 586, 035	89, 833, 000	796, 954, 587	65, 684, 000
1859	192, 206, 643	45, 766, 000	1, 695, 197, 322	105, 389, 000	863, 440, 142	73, 923, 000
1860	197, 343, 655	47, 973, 000	1, 800, 490, 300	112, 621, 000	971, 125, 890	82, 800, 000
1861	177, 848, 353	45, 164, 000	1, 730, 145, 747	105, 861, 000	828, 873, 922	69, 070, 000
1862	93, 225, 890	20, 142, 000	994, 095, 630	73, 614, 000	648, 070, 340	60, 002, 000
1863	74, 398, 284	30, 186, 000	1, 078, 371, 580	108, 602, 000	600, 317, 518	69, 459, 000
1864	75, 677, 521	44, 143, 000	1, 088, 003, 416	127, 638, 000	650, 422, 958	83, 232, 000
1865	103, 533, 609	50, 267, 000	1, 291, 919, 502	132, 071, 000	705, 607, 236	83, 033, 000
1866	138, 804, 538	66, 514, 000	1, 664, 919, 842	171, 441, 000	897, 825, 547	107, 382, 000
1867	169, 096, 708	72, 078, 000	1, 943, 977, 280	162, 698, 000	881, 707, 289	94, 221, 000
1868	174, 262, 196	71, 515, 000	2, 030, 859, 372	151, 127, 000	930, 962, 980	92, 019, 000
1869	168, 841, 075	68, 501, 000	1, 914, 157, 657	147, 083, 000	947, 270, 086	94, 128, 000
1870	186, 078, 060	71, 301, 000	2, 293, 633, 309	164, 861, 000	963, 855, 611	92, 763, 000
1871	196, 695, 156	73, 196, 000	2, 399, 227, 258	161, 853, 000	995, 946, 368	95, 081, 000
1872	212, 327, 972	81, 147, 000	2, 379, 968, 019	169, 337, 000	1, 137, 625, 766	113, 534, 000
1873	214, 778, 826	77, 150, 000	2, 384, 174, 306	166, 615, 000	1, 083, 306, 079	104, 884, 000
1874	220, 682, 919	70, 558, 000	2, 586, 709, 684	168, 841, 000	1, 003, 101, 107	95, 271, 000
1875	215, 609, 580	64, 020, 000	2, 549, 145, 807	161, 619, 000	1, 001, 035, 569	96, 719, 000
1876	232, 554, 627	62, 121, 000	2, 667, 423, 176	152, 866, 000	990, 147, 298	89, 881, 000
1877	227, 651, 402	59, 258, 000	2, 699, 282, 118	154, 597, 000	1, 125, 255, 197	98, 264, 000
1878	250, 631, 800	63, 262, 000	2, 539, 166, 400	102, 881, 000	1, 067, 298, 400	90, 288, 000
1879	235, 625, 500	58, 840, 000	2, 652, 440, 900	142, 174, 000	1, 057, 726, 500	84, 850, 000
1880	215, 544, 800	57, 844, 000	3, 058, 965, 900	168, 909, 000	1, 416, 348, 200	108, 752, 000

Years.	Piece goods of all sorts.		Total of piece goods.		All other manufactures.	Grand total.
	Piece goods, mixed.					
	Yards.	Dollars.	Yards.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1857	4, 966, 911	700, 000	1, 979, 470, 780	139, 899, 000	7, 714, 000	189, 900, 000
1858	2, 598, 463	41, 000	2, 324, 139, 085	155, 588, 000	6, 873, 000	208, 985, 000
1859	3, 908, 012	598, 000	2, 562, 545, 476	179, 910, 000	8, 388, 000	234, 062, 000
1860	4, 602, 237	661, 000	2, 776, 218, 427	196, 078, 000	8, 728, 000	252, 779, 000
1861	4, 439, 338	637, 000	2, 563, 459, 007	175, 568, 000	7, 071, 000	227, 803, 000
1862	39, 228, 630	5, 200, 000	1, 681, 394, 600	138, 818, 000	9, 650, 000	178, 610, 000
1863	32, 272, 974	4, 836, 000	1, 710, 962, 072	182, 897, 000	9, 190, 000	231, 273, 000
1864	13, 562, 926	2, 566, 000	1, 751, 989, 300	213, 436, 000	9, 147, 000	266, 726, 000
1865	16, 686, 978	2, 964, 000	2, 014, 303, 716	218, 079, 000	9, 957, 000	278, 308, 000
1866	12, 952, 749	2, 586, 000	2, 575, 698, 138	251, 409, 000	14, 696, 000	362, 619, 000
1867	6, 339, 138	1, 273, 000	2, 882, 023, 707	258, 193, 000	13, 788, 000	344, 059, 000
1868	6, 284, 199	1, 147, 000	2, 977, 106, 551	244, 293, 000	13, 151, 000	328, 959, 000
1869	7, 202, 382	1, 414, 000	2, 868, 630, 125	242, 627, 000	15, 060, 000	326, 188, 000
1870	9, 509, 446	1, 648, 000	3, 266, 998, 366	259, 272, 000	16, 509, 000	357, 082, 000
1871	22, 231, 687	3, 723, 000	3, 417, 405, 811	260, 657, 000	20, 057, 000	363, 910, 000
1872	20, 391, 526	35, 380, 000	3, 537, 985, 311	286, 419, 000	22, 041, 000	389, 597, 000
1873	16, 255, 200	3, 057, 000	3, 483, 735, 585	274, 556, 000	24, 179, 000	375, 885, 000
1874	16, 828, 253	3, 300, 000	3, 606, 639, 044	267, 312, 000	22, 876, 000	360, 846, 000
1875	12, 280, 790	2, 289, 000	3, 562, 426, 166	260, 627, 000	94, 164, 000	348, 811, 000
1876	11, 833, 900	2, 085, 000	3, 669, 404, 374	244, 832, 000	21, 788, 000	328, 741, 000
1877	13, 283, 535	2, 012, 000	3, 837, 820, 850	254, 873, 000	22, 317, 000	336, 448, 000
1878	12, 200, 500	1, 740, 000	3, 618, 665, 300	233, 789, 000	23, 392, 000	320, 443, 000
1879	14, 481, 400	1, 788, 000	3, 724, 648, 800	228, 812, 000	23, 261, 000	310, 913, 000
1880	20, 330, 900	2, 654, 000	4, 495, 645, 000	270, 315, 000	29, 082, 000	367, 241, 000

It will be noted by the foregoing statement that while the exports of piece goods for 1880, as compared with 1879 and previous years, show a large increase in quantity, the exports of cotton yarns show a large decrease. The decrease in the price of yarns will also be noted. For

instance, the exports of yarns were the same in quantity during the years 1875 and 1880, while the value of the exports of the former year was $6,176,000 more than for the latter year.

The decrease in the price of piece goods is also noteworthy. The exports of 1880, although greater by over 950,000,000 yards than the exportsof 1872, were only $947,000 greater in value.

Below is a statement of the imports of cotton, cotton yarns, and cotton manufactures into Great Britain, during the year 1880, with the countries from whence imported. In the matter of piece goods, other than muslins, it will be seen that out of a total import of 1,050,024 pieces, valued at $4,058,000, the United States supplied 546,078 pieces, valued at $2,610,000.

Statement showing the imports of cotton and cotton goods into the United Kingdom for the year 1880.

Whence imported.	Quantities.	Value.
RAW COTTON.		
	Pounds.	
From Denmark	19, 876	$228, 000
Germany	2, 971	38, 000
Belgium	1, 879	49, 000
France	7, 232	131, 000
Turkey	4, 997	68, 000
Egypt	1, 362, 559	24, 062, 000
United States of America	10, 931, 092	154, 475, 000
New Granada	58, 600	919, 000
Peru	44, 602	690, 000
Chili	5, 742	92, 000
Brazil	215, 979	3, 193, 000
British India:		
Bombay and Scinde	1, 328, 206	17, 175, 000
Madras	175, 356	2, 070, 000
Bengal and Burmah	337, 497	3, 995, 000
Ceylon	7, 701	97, 000
Australia	4, 410	112, 000
British North America	3, 082	44, 000
Other countries	29, 867	434, 000
Total	14, 541, 648	207, 872, 000
COTTON YARN.		
From Germany	7, 648, 092	2, 124, 000
Holland	1, 237, 486	452, 000
Other countries	115, 549	29, 000
Total	9, 001, 127	2, 605, 000
COTTON WASTE.		
From Belgium	985, 478	58, 000
France	1, 245, 632	83, 000
United States of America	1, 622, 352	122, 000
British India:		
Bombay and Scinde	3, 477, 809	170, 000
Other countries	1, 267, 774	72, 000
Total	8, 599, 045	505, 000
COTTON MANUFACTURES.		
	Pieces.	
Piece goods of India and China from British East Indies	72, 041	122, 000
Piece goods from other countries	5, 540	7, 000
Total	77, 581	129, 000
Piece goods of other countries:		
Muslins from France	9, 925	28, 000
From other countries	1, 352	1, 000
Total	11, 277	29, 000

Statement showing the imports of cotton and cotton goods into the United Kingdom for the year 1880—Continued.

Whence imported.	Quantities.	Value.
Piece goods of other countries:		
Other than Muslins:	*Pieces.*	
From Holland	86,734	$126,000
Belgium	99,226	481,000
France	299,757	768,000
United States of America	546,078	2,610,000
Other countries	18,229	73,000
Total	1,050,024	4,058,000
Hosiery of all sorts:		
From Germany		92,000
Holland		272,000
France		34,000
Other countries		10,000
Total		408,000
Unenumerated:		
From Germany		253,000
Holland		3,329,000
Belgium		603,000
France		3,183,000
United States of America		267,000
Other countries		34,000
Total		7,669,000
Grand total of yarn and manufactures		15,403,000

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF FRANCE.

The foreign cottons entered for consumption in France during the year 1879 were: Yarns, $6,725,000; tissues, $12,000,000; total, $18,725,000.

As compared with the previous year this shows a decrease of about $2,225,000.

The exports of French cotton manufacturers during the year 1879, amounted to $12,234,000. No export of cotton yarns is noted for the year.

Hence it appears the imports of foreign cotton goods into France are only balanced by the exports of French goods, leaving a balance of trade against the country of the amount of yarns imported.

The principal countries from which France received her foreign cottons for consumption during the year 1878—the latest official returns at hand giving details of the trade—were as follows:

Countries.	Yarn.	Manufactures.	Total.
Great Britain	$2,360,000	$5,520,000	$7,880,000
Germany	.....	4,583,000	4,583,000
Belgium	2,145,000	362,000	2,507,000
Switzerland	Not given...	2,509,000	2,509,000

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to France during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	4, 954, 500	$2, 143, 000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	22, 773, 300	1, 803, 000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	33, 412, 600	3, 533, 000
Mixed piece goods ..... do....	144, 500	24, 000
Total piece goods	56, 330, 400	5, 360, 000
Lace and patent net	.....	709, 000
Sewing thread	.....	151, 000
All other	.....	252, 000
Total	.....	8, 615, 000

As compared with the year 1879 this shows an increase in the total of $72,000. In detail, it shows a decrease in piece goods of $200,000, although in quantity the years are almost equal, thus showing a somewhat cheaper grade of goods sent to France during the year 1880.

The exports of cotton manufactures from the United States to France during the fiscal year 1880 amounted to only $21,507, viz: Piece goods plain, 222,023 yards, valued at $20,087; printed piece goods, 2,500 yards, valued at $199; all other goods, $1,221.

The average price of British goods exported to France, as above, was as follows: Plain piece goods, 7.94 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 10.57 cents per yard; yarn, 43.26 cents per pound.

American piece goods, plain, 9 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 7.96 cents per yard.

Four interesting reports concerning the cotton-goods trade and industry of the districts from which they were written will be found in their proper place: 1. Report on the cotton-goods trade of Bordeaux, by Consul Gerrish; 2. Report on the trade of Lyons, by Consul Peixotto; 3. Report on the cotton manufactures of Normandy, by Consul Peixotto; and 4. Report on the cotton goods trade of Rouen, by Consul Rhodes.

Such of the foregoing reports as deal with the subject of establishing a trade in American cottons in France, take rather a gloomy view on account of the advantages possessed by other nations over the United States in having special commercial conventions with that country, while the United States was subject to the general convention, which in nearly all that related to cotton manufactures was prohibitive. The passage of the recent general tariff of France, however, which provides for the abrogation of all special conventions, places our manufactures on an equality with those of all other countries, outside of France, in this regard. Consequently the reasoning of the consular reports anterior to the passage of the new tariff regulations has no special significance for us now.

The principal consideration for American manufacturers, therefore, is this: If England, Belgium, and Germany can export cotton goods to France under a general tariff which applies equally to all, cannot American goods be also introduced under the same law?

Consul Peixotto, of Lyons, in a report dated October 1, 1880, on American manufactures in France, wrote as follows:

Cotton goods.—The best yarns in the world are the American, and therefore best adapted to admixture with silk, for which there is a trade to-day of at least $25,000,000, and of which the United States furnishes next to nothing. Our yarns once admitted would not only compete with those of England, Alsace, and those produced in this country, but speedily take precedence and command a monopoly.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF SWITZERLAND.

The foreign trade of Switzerland being effected through the neighboring countries, it is difficult to define the same; but, as the greater portion is effected through France, a fair approximation can be reached through the French returns.

During the year 1878 the export of Swiss cotton goods through France amounted to $9,918,000, of which the goods entered for consumption in France amounted to $2,600,000, the remainder passing in transit to the various countries. It may be safely assumed, therefore, that the total exports of Swiss cottons of all sorts do not exceed $12,000,000 per annum.

The amount of Swiss manufactures which reached the United States through England, France, and Germany was as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Yards.	
Piece goods, plain	396,432	$57,950
Piece goods, printed	20,514	3,458
Hosiery, shirts, and drawers		1,729
Jeans, denims, drillings		21,068
All other cottons		3,134,815
Total		3,219,020

The imports of cotton goods into Switzerland do not amount to, perhaps, over $1,200,000.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF SPAIN.

The imports of raw cotton into Spain during the year 1879 amounted to 83,460,000 pounds, valued at $13,500,000, which, no exports being reported, must have been consumed in the country.

The imports of cotton manufactures, during the same year, amounted to $2,076,000. No exports of Spanish cotton manufactures are recorded.

The exports of British cottons to Spain during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	178,000	$92,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	7,073,400	607,000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	10,303,100	957,000
Mixed piece goods ..... do....	167,700	19,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	17,544,200	1,583,000
Lace and patent net goods		233,000
Sewing thread		335,000
All other		38,000
Total		2,281,000

By the foregoing it appears that the exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Spain, in 1880, exceeded the entire imports of foreign cottons into that country during the year 1879. It must be

borne in mind, however, that British cottons control to a great extent the Spanish markets, as far as foreign goods are concerned.

The exports of cotton goods from France to Spain amount to about $1,200,000, of which French goods are entered at $400,000, the remainder being goods in transit through France.

In the foregoing statements of exports from Great Britain and France, the cottons exported to the Canary Islands are included, while the imports into Spain do not cover the cottons for the Canaries.

There are no direct exports of cotton goods from the United States to Spain.

From which it is inferred that the cotton-manufacturing industry of Spain is nearly advanced enough to supply its home demands.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OE PORTUGAL.

The want of Portuguese trade statistics renders it impossible to give any details, from that source, concerning the cotton-goods trade of Portugal. As more than one-half the total foreign trade of the country is with Great Britain, it may be safely assumed that the greater portion of the foreign cottons imported are British.

The imports of raw cotton into Portugal are so insignificant as to lead at once to the conclusion that the cotton-manufacturing industry of the country is of very little moment, if there is any such industry.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Portugal during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn	None.	None.
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	59,641,000	$3,203,000
Printed piece goods ..... do...	9,898,200	753,000
Total piece goods	69,539,200	3,956,000
Sewing thread		160,000
All other		34,000
Total		4,150,000

The exports of cotton goods from France to Portugal amount to only about $200,000, of which only about one-half represents French manufactures, the remainder being goods in transit through France.

There is an export of American cottons, valued at $1,200, noted in our customs returns for the year 1880, which shows that our merchants are at least endeavoring to introduce their goods into that market.

Our exports to Portugal of all products and manufactures amounted, in 1880, to $4,586,000, and our cotton manufacturers should be able to establish a trade in that country, whose imports of foreign cottons are nearly double the imports of Spain.

The average price of British cottons exported to Portugal, as above, would lead to the opinion that the grade, especially in plain goods, is very low, viz, plain piece goods, 5.37 cents per yard; printed goods, 7.60 cents per yard.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF ITALY.

In 1877, the latest statistics in this connection at hand,* there were 647 cotton factories in Italy, worked by a motive force of 2,990 steam horse-power, and 9,703 hydraulic horse-power, and employing 53,484

*Report of Consul-General McMillan in Commercial Relations for 1878, p. 839.

operatives. The spindles numbered 734,860. The power looms numbered 13,517, and the hand looms, 14,300.

The operatives were employed as follows:

Spinning and twisting: 6,439 men; 7,819 women; 3,982 children; total, 18,231.

Weaving: 8,655 men; 19,469 women; 7,129 children; total, 35,253.

The three principal cotton-printing establishments are at Salerano, Milan, and Torre-Pellice.

From a more recent report on the industries of Italy,* it is evident there has been no advance made in this industry since 1877, as the number of operatives reported employed in the cotton factories in 1880 was somewhat less than that given for the former year.

The imports of raw cotton into Italy during the year 1878 were as follows:

	Pounds.
From the United States	15,394,000
British India	26,306,000
England	7,086,201
France	3,965,031
Turkey in Europe	3,113,019
Austria	1,697,409
Egypt	1,129,842
All other countries	812,195
Total	59,503,697

About one-sixth of the foregoing imports were re-exported, leaving about 50,000,000 pounds for consumption in Italy.

The imports of raw cotton in 1879 amounted to 82,000,000 pounds, of which 26,000,000 pounds were re-exported, leaving 56,000,000 for home consumption.

According to official returns the imports of cotton manufactures into Italy during the year 1879 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
Yarn and twist	14,410,000	$4,480,000
Piece goods, plain		3,934,000
Piece goods, printed		4,625,000
Total		13,039,000

The exports of Italian cotton goods are so insignificant, if there are any, as not to be considered worthy of special record.

Exports of cottons from Great Britain to Italy during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn.....pounds..	10,530,300	$2,411,000
Plain piece goods.....yards..	30,216,400	1,759,000
Printed piece goods.....do...	30,357,900	2,517,000
Total piece goods.....do...	60,574,300	4,276,000
Lace and patent net goods		213,000
Hosiery		19,000
Sewing thread		92,000
All other		53,000
Total		7,064,000

*Report of Consul Rice in Consular Reports for February, 1881, p. 324.

The foregoing, as compared with the exports to Italy during the year 1879, shows a decrease of $460,000, divided equally between yarn and piece goods.

The exports from France to Italy amount to about $2,100,000 per annum, of which French manufactures constitute $600,000, the remainder being made up of cottons in transit through France, from Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, &c.

Large quantities of yarn and cotton goods are exported from Germany and Austria to Italy, but the value thereof cannot be given. In 1878 the following amounts were exported thither: From Germany, 674,000 pounds of yarn and twist, and 1,201,000 pounds of cotton manufactures; from Austria, 1,500,000 pounds of yarn and twist, and 2,254,000 pounds of manufactures.

The exports of cotton goods from the United States to Italy during the fiscal year 1880 consisted of 99,634 yards of plain piece goods, valued at $10,250, and miscellaneous cottons, valued at $316, against 9,500 yards of plain piece goods, valued at $713, and miscellaneous cottons, valued at $661, during the previous year—a gain of $9,182.

Consul-General McMillan, in his annual report upon the commerce of Italy for 1878, wrote as follows concerning the outlook for trade in American cottons in Italy:

The development and extension of the manufacturing industries of Italy will be noted, silk, hemp, linen, jute, woolen, and cotton fabrics showing increase of production. As more particularly interesting to our country, attention may be directed to the increasing demand for our cotton and cotton goods. In the hoped-for general revival of trade, Italy may, with great probability, be relied upon as a purchaser to no inconsiderable extent of this staple American article.

Consul Govin, of Leghorn, wrote as follows in 1878:

My having been here for only a short time prevents me from going more into detailt at present; but I may say that I have already succeeded in inducing one of the largess firms here that import cotton goods (G. Rotzain & Co.) to give an order for a sample lot of American cotton manufactures. They were induced to do so on finding that the prices offered a margin of about 20 per cent. over the English ones, and that in general the quality of the American make was superior to the English. If the quality of this parcel turns out equal to the samples on which they bought it will doubtless be the forerunner of an active trade in this important article between this country and the United States.

In regard to the outlook for general American trade in Italy, Consul-General Schuyler wrote from Rome in 1879:

It is believed here that if somewhat more attention was given by American manufacturers to the Italian market a considerable increase of imports from America might be expected. Frequently manufacturers take no pains to have circulars translated into Italian, but distribute them in English, and they are unread and unheeded. For many articles it is necessary to consult Italian habits and Italian tastes. This is especially the case with regard to cloths and cotton goods. Certain colors and certain patterns are preferred in Italy, and it is customary here to use goods of widths different from those generally made by the manufacturers in America. When people are accustomed, for instance, to cotton goods of a certain width, they know the exact amount which they use, and are unwilling to buy goods, though better in quality, which are either wider or narrower. English and French manufacturers take advantage of this feeling and send their agents here with patterns, and make their goods of widths, lengths, and colors to suit the market.

It is to be hoped that the recent establishment of lines of steamers running directly to ports of the United States will assist in increasing the American trade. The fruit trade from Italy has become so important that in addition to the English steamers which take fruit from Sicily and Southern Italy to America, bu t which usually return by the way of England, the Florio Company has now started a line of steamers which run with tolerable regularity from Naples and Palermo directly to New York and back. As this company will naturally desire to obtain a homeward cargo, it can be made a powerful agent for increasing the imports from America.

During the same year Consul Crosby, of Florence, wrote as follows:

English and German agents are to be found at every important point in Italy, and are generally men of education and enterprise, speaking Italian and French fluently, and for smaller articles of trade having samples of their goods to show to the purchaser, whereas the few American agents who have, to my knowledge, reached Italy, not a a single one could speak Italian, and only one even understands French. We can hardly expect to compete successfully in old and established lines of goods under these conditions; and, as I suggested in my report of last year, merchants and manufacturers may flood this country with circulars and advertisements printed in English, but unless they send out samples of their goods (when it can be done), and intelligent and capable agents to represent them, they cannot succeed.

On September 30, 1879, Consul Hazelton, of Genoa, wrote concerning American cotton goods:

American cotton goods.—I think that American cotton fabrics could be sold here, provided the goods were manufactured to suit the Italian taste, which is peculiar. The best way to test this matter would be for American manufacturers to send agents here with samples of American goods, and in this way, or some other similar way, ascertain the quality, width, and general requirements of cotton goods in the Italian market.

England and France are doing the greater part of this trade at the present time with this consular district. Each of these countries is also represented here by several mercantile houses, and has a colony which is large and respectable.

On the 4th of October, 1879, Consul Owen, of Messina, wrote:

It will be observed that the imports amount to $4,539,015, on which duty was paid to the amount of $300,435, an increase over the previous year of $7,832.76. Aside from the cargoes of petroleum of the total value of $64,000, there have been no direct importations from the United States, although our cotton goods are now found on the market. These are obtained through German and English agents, and have been found, in quality and style, to compare favorably with foreign manufactures. There is no doubt but in time they will be preferred. As has been often remarked, the lack of direct steam communication with the United States prevents the import trade from assuming any great proportions.

Per contra, Consul Duncan, of Naples, reported as follows on May 15, 1880:

I may also remark that the prospects of doing business in two articles, *anthracite coal* and *manufactures of cotton*, on which I reported favorably last summer, do not now seem so favorable as then. Since the improved business prospects in the United States, and the consequent increased price of coal; the Reading Railroad Company seems to have lost its interest in finding an outlet in the Mediterranean, and has not established, at Naples, or elsewhere, so far as I am aware, deposits for its coal. From this, one naturally infers that the company has not felt that a profitable business could be done. Nor have the first attempts at introducing our manufactures of cotton been more successful. The houses which first gave orders have not renewed them, doubtless finding that they could not compete successfully with English, French, and German goods.

It need scarcely be here remarked that the partial failure to introduce an American cotton-goods trade into Naples leaves no permanent discouragement for the future.

It is easy enough to understand how Italian merchants who have grown into established trade in special lines of manufactures should hesitate to experiment in new lines of goods, where even the profit derived from such expriment does not equal that derived from their old trade. It is easy, therefore, to see why such merchants, finding their customers more conservative in their acquired tastes than was expected, and who therefore preferred that which is familiar to that which is strange, and also finding less profit, perhaps, from the latter than from the former, and far less trouble, should fall back again into their old and easily-managed business relations, leaving American cottons to take care of themselves.

All these things will at once suggest themselves to the practical American manufacturer, who, if he desires to establish an Italian trade in American cottons, must either do so himself or make it profitable enough for some respectable Italian merchant to surrender his easy position, as agent or commissioner for some English house whose goods are known to the public eye, and engage in the more difficult task of introducing American cottons on the market.

It is not reasonable to expect that responsible merchants will sunder long-estabilshed relations to introduce new branches of trade, unless sufficient inducements are held out to justify such action.

There seems to be room in Italy for a fair trade in American cotton manufactures, but the work should be undertaken with the understanding that it may take years to accomplish results.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

The imports of raw cotton into the empire of Austria-Hungary during the year 1879 is given as amounting to nearly 149,000,000 pounds. The exports are not returned, but they did not amount to much. The imports of cotton yarn for the same year amounted to 24,390,000 pounds, a decrease from the preceding year of 4,053,000 pounds. The imports of cotton manufactures are not given.

According to a report by Consul-General Weaver, then at Vienna, the imports of cotton manufactures into Austria-Hungary during the year 1878 amounted to $1,957,670.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Austria-Hungary during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn.....pounds.	1,985,300	$452,000
Plain piece goods.....yards.	3,571,000	209,000
Printed piece goods.....yards.	2,134,400	175,000
Total piece goods.....yards.	5,705,400	484,000
Total exports.....	.....	936,000

The exports of cotton manufactures from France to Austria amounts to only about $65,000 per annum.

During the fiscal year 1880, the exports of cotton manufactures from the United States to Austria consisted of 19,957 yards of plain piece goods, valued at $1,700, and miscellaneous goods to the amount of $950.

It will be seen from the foregoing statement that the cotton manufacturing industry of Austria-Hungary is well developed, and that the field of operations for foreign manufactures is comparatively the smallest of any country in Europe.

Consul-General Weaver, of Vienna, reports that it was with great difficulty he could procure any information concerning the qualities and prices of the yarns and textiles consumed in Austria, through fear of American competition. He thinks, however, that there is no present opening in the country for our piece goods, but that our yarns of certain numbers should be able to compete in that market with the home and foreign yarns.

The two reports from Consul-General Weaver give details in regard to the cotton-goods trade of Austria-Hungary which must prove of great interest to those desiring to be informed in regard to the wants and requirements of that market. Neither the report of the consul-general, nor that by the consul at Trieste, however, gives any very encouraging hopes for the introduction of American cotton textiles into the empire under existing circumstances, the Austrian tariff on cotton goods being almost prohibitory.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF GREECE.

According to the interesting report from our consul at Patras, the cotton-manufacturing industry of Greece must be in a comparatively advanced state. The consul estimates the number of spindles at 80,000, which not only supply a large portion of the wants of the country but furnish considerable for export to some of the Turkish provinces—Volo, Salonica, and Smyrna.

The development of the Greek cotton manufactures can be traced by the exports of raw cotton—there are no imports of raw cotton noted—which decreased from over 20,000 quintals, in 1872, to about 2,000 quintals in 1875, the latest official returns.

In 1875, the imports of cotton manufactures into Greece were as follows: Textiles, $1,980,000; yarn, $228,000; total, $2,208,000.

Notwithstanding the development of the Greek cotton industry, it is probable that the present imports of cotton goods into Greece are nearly double thoseof 1875.

Exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Greece during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	906, 500	$199, 000
Piece goods, plain ..... yards..	20, 510, 200	1, 186, 000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	13, 239, 600	1, 123, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	33, 749, 800	2, 309, 000
Total exports	.....	2, 508, 000

The exports of cotton manufactures from France to Greece amount to about $75,000 annually, nearly all being foreign goods in transit through France.

For details concerning the requirements of the Greek market in the yarn and piece-goods line, those interested are referred to the report of Consul Hancock.

COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF ROUMANIA.

According to a very comprehensive report from Consul-General Schuyler, of Bucharest, on the industries, products, and commerce of Roumania, which was published in the February, 1881, number of the consular reports, the imports of cotton and cotton manufactures into Roumania during the year 1879 amounted to $9,980,000, of which England supplied $6,255,000; Austria-Hungary, $2,355,000; and Germany, $729,000. It is

probable, however, that the estimates of the consul-general are too high, for British official returns give the exports of cotton manufactures to Roumania during the year 1879 as follows—they mention no exports of raw cotton to Roumania:

Cotton yarn	$1,541,000
Plain piece goods	846,000
Printed piece goods	617,000
Total	3,004,000

This is less than one-half the estimates of Consul-General Schuyler.

The exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Roumania during the year 1880 were as follows:

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn ..... pounds..	2,385,300	$476,000
Plain piece goods ..... yards..	14,047,300	841,000
Printed piece goods ..... do....	29,231,500	1,895,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	43,278,800	2,736,000
Total exports	.....	3,212,000

The foregoing, compared with 1879, shows a decrease in cotton yarn of over $1,000,000, but an increase in piece goods of $1,270,000.

In regard to the opportunities for the introduction of American cotton manufactures into Roumania, Consul-General Schuyler, in the report above referred to, says:

There would seem to be a fair opening for the introduction of cotton goods and other stuffs into Roumania, if they can be produced of equal or better quality, and at a sufficiently less price to cover the difference of freight in competition with similar goods coming from England and France. The English goods sent here are generally of poor quality, and many of them are bought up by the Jews from remnants on hand after fires and bankruptcies. Persons who can afford good things usually prefer articles of French and Austrian manufacture.

American exporters, however, can hardly hope for a great extension of their trade in countries like this, unless they send either some agent in whom they have confidence, or enter into relations with some one on the spot. While the consular officers are ready to assist exporters with information and advice, they can hardly be expected to do more, either by placing their samples with merchants or by collecting their debts. It is difficult for merchants and commission agents here to see the whole value of an article from an illustrated advertisement. Roumania is constantly traversed by traveling agents of manufacturing houses in England, France, Germany, Austria, and Belgium, who bring the goods to the notice of the consumers, and in many cases create a trade which did not previously exist.

American exporters should also conform themselves to some extent to the customs of the country, if they wish for success. Several cases have come within my limited experience where intended imports have been given up, because the exporter insisted on cash payment before the goods were shipped. On the one hand it may be difficult for the exporter to learn about the business standing of the house which orders the goods, but he should remember, at the same time, that it is still more difficult for the importer to know whether the American manufacturers advertising certain articles in the trade journals are reputable houses, and will carry out their agreement, and whether the articles will turn out what they are represented to be. In certain cases the beginnings of a trade have come to naught because the American manufacturer, after receiving the order, has found it easier to supply in the first place the increased home demand, and the articles sent abroad arrived after the time of year when they could be sold had passed by, and there was either no sale for them, or the importer had them on his hands for many months until the season came round again.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF TURKEY IN EUROPE.

According to Consul-General Heap's report, the imports of cotton yarns into the Turkish Empire during the year 1879 were as follows:

Constantinople	$8,000,000
Smyrna	5,500,000
Beyrout	4,500,000
Salonica	4,000,000
All other ports	7,000,000
Total	29,000,000

Owing to the irregularity in the keeping of customs statistics in Turkey the foregoing figures are only approximate.

The statistics concerning the imports of textiles are not given by the consul-general.

As the details concerning the cotton-goods export from Great Britain to Turkey include Asiatic Turkey, the following are the only available statistics concerning the exports to Turkey in Europe:

Exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Turkey in Europe during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Yarn	pounds.. 5,898,900	$1,230,000
Cotton piece goods	yards.. 215,390,000	14,861,000
All other		190,000
Total		16,281,000

As compared with 1879 the foregoing shows a decrease in cotton yarn of nearly one-half, but an increase in piece goods of 32,000,000 yards. This would argue an alarming decline in the home manufacture, caused no doubt by the unsettled condition of the country.

The exports from France include Asiatic and European Turkey and amount to $1,700,000, of which French goods amount to only about $400,000, the remainder being composed of goods in transit through France.

There are no exports of cotton manufactures from the United States to Turkey in Europe recorded in our official returns.

Further details of the cotton-goods trade of Turkey in Europe will be found in the report of Consul-General Heap.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF RUSSIA.

The imports of raw cotton and cotton manufactures into Russia for a series of years have been as follows:

Raw cotton.

1865	$12,314,000	1876	$29,211,000
1870	22,827,000	1877	26,500,000
1874	39,392,000	1878	44,674,000

Cotton yarn and cotton tissues.

Years.	Yarn.	Tissues.	Total.
1865	$2, 035, 000	$1, 624, 000	$3, 659, 000
1870	4, 785, 000	3, 217, 000	8, 002, 000
1874	9, 837, 000	4, 463, 000	14, 300, 000
1876	10, 830, 000	3, 888, 000	14, 718, 000
1877	4, 490, 000	1, 530, 000	6, 020, 000
1878	12, 449, 000	3, 060, 000	15, 509, 000

Exports of cotton manufactures from Great Britain to Russia during the year 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Twist and yarn....pounds..	10, 207, 700	$2, 931, 000
Plain piece goods....yards...	4, 479, 100	$345, 000
Printed piece goods....do....	4, 865, 300	530, 000
Total piece goods....do	9, 344, 400	875, 000
Lace and patent net		97, 000
Sewing thread		763, 000
All other		185, 000
Total exports		2, 851, 000

The exports of cotton manufactures from France to Russia amount to about $75,000 per annum, of which French goods amount to $50,000, the balance being goods in transit through France.

The only exports of cotton goods from the United States to Russia consist of small lots to the Asiatic provinces, none whatever having been exported to Russia in Europe during the year 1880.

None of our consuls in Russia having received the circular in relation to this subject, the Department is not advised whether the Russian market does or does not offer any opening for American cottons.

The average prices of cotton goods exported from Great Britain to Russia during the year 1880 were as follows: Twist and yarn, 28.71 cents per pound; plain piece goods, 7.76 cents per yard; printed piece goods, 10.89 cents per yard.

Latterly the direct exports of raw cotton from the United States to Russia have largely increased, amounting, during the fiscal year 1880, to 102,250,000 pounds, valued at over $12,000,000—being about one-half the total imports. In 1877 the direct exports of raw cotton from the United States to Russia amounted to only 25,000,000 pounds.

The following extracts from the annual report of Consul-General Edwards, of St. Petersburg, dated February 7, 1879, indicate that Russia is not only putting forth her best efforts to develop her cotton-manufacturing industry, but also seems determined to increase the supply of raw cotton within her own dominions:

As indicated in a former dispatch, the cotton spinners and manufacturers of this country seem especially alive to all opportunities and improvements which present themselves for meeting the home as well as developing the eastern market, and it is worthy of repetition that as the result of such activity their mills have been kept running day and night for many months.

The present demand from the consuming markets for the products of these mills is so active, the future operations so firmly fixed, and the symptoms of expanding trade so favorable, that the buyers are encouraged to such an extent as to be willing and anxious to contract for the products of the factories for future deliveries covering the year 1880. On the other hand, the manufacturers are equally confident of the present

stability and the future expansion of the market, and decline to cover except under the most favorable conditions. The fact that the manufacturers have been able to develop and establish an industry of so much importance, at a time when the industry and commerce of this country were laboring under the unfavorable influence exercised by the war and rumors of war, and also at a time when the rest of the manufacturing world were suffering from commercial depression, may be justly attributed to the protective policy of this government, and especially to the law of November 10, 1876, which decreed that all customs dues on and after January 1, 1877, should be paid in gold, and which had the effect to virtually close this market to all foreign manufactured commodities except machinery, and set to work, and very profitably to work, the various industries of the country to fill the vacancies thus created.

The increase in the importation of raw cotton during the first nine months of the year 1878, as compared to the corresponding period of the preceding year, speaks for itself. The following are the figures: 1877, 92,363,356 pounds; 1878, 155,695,392 pounds. By virtue of a decision of the ministry, sanctioned by His Majesty the Emperor, under date of December 22, 1878, a duty of 34 cents gold per pood (36 pounds) was assessed upon all raw cotton entering Russia on and after January 1, 1879, by European ways of commerce, comprising the cotton entering the ports of the Black Sea.

I am trustworthily informed that this rate was fixed by the ministry after a full and free discussion with the manufacturers, which fact points not only to the stability of the industry, but also to the further development of the eastern trade. The increase of the importations above mentioned is not in any measure due to the action of the ministry, but may be considered a fair measure of the increasing demand. The knowledge of this decision may have given exceptional activity to the importations during the last weeks of the year 1878, but certainly not during the period referred to. To whatever manufacturing industry I turn I find the same indisputable evidence of its well-being.

Consul Dyer, in a report on the commerce of Odessa (Commercial Relations for 1879, vol. 2, p. 611), writes as follows concerning the development of raw cotton in Central Asia:

It is hoped that this duty will have the effect to largely develop the culture of cotton in Central Asia and the Caucasus. I can see no reason why the Caucasus should not produce abundantly in this article. The oleander, the magnolia, fig, and olive grow abundantly there, as does the mulberry tree. The climate in the valleys is warm and genial, and the soil constantly enriched by the wash from the mountain sides. Whether a class of labor could be had that would give that unremitting care, toil, and attention, without which cotton cannot be produced, is quite another question. I must confess that I saw nothing during my travels in that country that leads me to believe that such labor is available. For military and sporting life they are, perhaps, unexcelled, but for a life of husbandry I should think them not adapted, either by customs, habits, traditions, or experience. Hitherto Central Asian cotton has only been used to mix with American and Egyptian cotton, but it is now claimed that at Tuspan, in Eastern Turkistan, a cotton is grown equal to the American article, and it is expected that the encouragement of the present protective tariff will make Russia independent of America in this regard.

The plant is said to obtain a growth of 9 feet 4 inches in height and the stalk a thickness of 2¼ inches in diameter, and even more; the pods beautifully filled and developed. The staple is said to be soft, long, and silky, and has great repute in the Chinese markets. The crop matures and is ready for market the 1st of August. The highest price for the best article of this cotton at Tuspan is 7 copecks a pound, equal to 5 cents the pound. The second and shorter grades sell at from one-half to three-fifths the above price. It is cultivated by Chinese, and the annual yield is about 6,000,000 pounds, or 72,000 bales of 500 pounds each.

In regard to the best manner of introducing American trade into Russia, Consul Dyer, of Odessa, wrote in September, 1880:

Inasmuch as a house cannot be found here that will assume to establish a depot for the exhibition of American goods, and as it appears the goods must be exhibited in order to know whether they are suitable and can be sold in the country, I have thought it desirable that such a house should be organized in America and sent here for that purpose. A number of manufacturers might combine for that purpose, and such of them as found that their goods did not sell might retire and the others remain.

In this connection it may be well to draw the attention of our manufacturers to the Artisans' Industrial Exhibition, which opens at Riga in June, 1882, at which textile fabrics will be assigned the first position of importance. (See Consular Reports for June, 1881, p. 935.)

CONCLUSIONS.

THE COUNTRIES WHICH ARE EXPORTERS OF COTTON MANUFACTURES.

Notwithstanding the generally accepted conclusion (founded on the very active competition of the principal manufacturing nations for the cotton-goods trade of the world) that the principal countries of Europe are over-producers, and consequently large exporters of cotton manufactures, the fact is that if the number be reduced to those which export after supplying their home demand, it will be found that England stands almost alone in this regard.

France imports annually about $13,000,000 worth of cotton goods, and $8,000,000 worth of cotton yarns, while the total exports of her own manufactures amount to only about $11,000,000, and $500,000 worth of yarn, which latter is, probably, foreign yarn nationalized in France by being entered for consumption and then re-exported.

It is estimated that Germany requires more than 3,000,000 spindles in addition to her present number, in order to be able to supply her home demands.

Russia imports annually about $12,000,000 worth of cotton yarns, and over $3,000,000 worth of cotton goods. From the efforts being made for the development of this industry, it is probable that in a few years Russia will be able to supply her home cotton goods demand. The imports of raw cotton into Russia in 1878 amounted to $44,000,000, supplying over 3,500,000 spindles, giving employment to 180,000 operatives.

Sweden and Norway import cotton yarns and manufactures to the extent of over $3,000,000, and export none.

Denmark imports yarn and goods to the amount of over $2,000,000 annually.

Holland imports over $6,000,000 worth of yarns and goods in excess of her exports of the same.

Belgium imports for consumption as follows: Cotton yarn, say $6,000,000; manufactures $2,500,000.

Switzerland exports cotton manufactures, in excess of her imports to the amount of $10,000,000, and is, perhaps, the only country in Europe, outside of England, which is independent of foreign manufactures.

Spain is dependent on foreign cotton manufactures to the annual value of at least $2,500,000.

Portugal relies upon foreign manufactures to the annual amount of at least $4,500,000.

Italian imports of foreign cotton manufactures amount to over $13,000,000 annually.

Austria-Hungary imports cotton yarn to the value of over $6,000,000, and cotton goods to the value of over $2,000,000 annually.

Greece imports cotton manufactures to the value of about $2,500,000 annually.

Turkey in Europe imports foreign yarns and cotton goods to the annual value of at least $20,000,000.

The annual imports of cotton manufactures into Roumania, according to Consul-General Schuyler, amount to $9,980,000.

The United States.—The following statement shows the imports and exports of cotton manufactures into and from the United States during the fiscal year 1880:*

Articles.	Imports.	Exports.
Piece goods, plain	$1, 020, 000	$5. 835, 000
Piece goods, printed	1, 180, 000	2, 956, 000
Hosiery, shirts, and drawers	7, 515, 000	.....
Jeans, denims	1, 068, 000	.....
All other manufactures	19, 146, 000	1, 190, 000
Total	29, 929, 000	9, 981, 000

From this statement it is plain that our imports of cotton manufactures are three times greater than our exports. All this excess, however, consists of fancy goods, the domestic manufacture of which has not yet reached that perfection toward which it is tending; and we may expect that for some years to come we will have to draw upon Europe for more or less of this class of goods to supply that demand which the home manufactures will be unable to meet.

In piece goods, however, we have reached that stage where, after supplying our home demands, we have a surplus left which must find consumption in foreign markets; and as this over-production will continue to augment year after year a full understanding of the world's wants is of the first importance to our manufacturers.

Our imports of plain piece goods during the fiscal year 1880 amounted to only 9,466,000 yards, while our exports of American plain piece goods amounted to nearly 69,000,000 yards. Our imports of printed piece goods during the same year amounted to only 9,346,000 yards, while our exports of American prints amounted to 38,000,000.

The imports of piece goods into the United States at present are confined to specialties, as the following statement will show: The plain piece goods imported averaged a little over 10 cents per yard, and the imported prints about 12½ cents per yard, while our plain piece goods exported average only a little over 9½ cents, and our exports of prints 7¾ cents per yard.

The United Kingdom.—In considering the trade of the United Kingdom, it is found that after supplying its home demands it has cotton manufactures for export—the output of 35,000,000 spindles and 410,000 operatives; more spindles than are run by the remaining manufacturing nations

* EXPORTS OF AMERICAN COTTONS DURING THE YEARS ENDING JUNE 30, 1880 AND 1881.

The estimates of the exports of American manufactures throughout this letter are based upon the returns for the year ending June 30, 1880, which, for reasons fully stated herein, was anything but a favorable export year. The returns for the year ending June 30, 1881, received after this letter was compiled, show that the exports were nearly once and a half as much as those for the year recorded, as will be seen by the following statement:

Description.	1880.		1881.		Increase.	
	Yards.	Dollars.	Yards.	Dollars.	Yards.	Dollars.
Piece goods, plain	68, 821, 557	5, 834, 541	80, 399, 154	6, 624, 374	11, 577, 597	789, 833
Piece goods, printed	37, 758, 166	2, 956, 760	68, 184, 293	4, 983, 312	30, 426, 127	2, 026. 552
All other manufactures	.. ..	1, 190, 117	.....	1, 963, 601	.....	773, 484
Total exports	106, 579, 723	9, 981, 418	148, 583, 447	13, 571, 287	42, 003, 724	3. 589, 869

combined—amounting to $310,000,000 annually, an amount nearly equal to one-third the total domestic exports of the kingdom.

England being therefore leader of the cotton-goods trade of the world, and there appearing much in common between the trade of that country and that of the United States, in artisanship, enterprise, and persistency, and it being an inevitable result of the development of our industry that we must meet our great competitor in the markets of the world, which she has so long occupied without serious opposition, it follows that a thorough exposition of the British cotton-goods trade must be an exposition of nearly all that it is necessary to know concerning the trade of the world. For these reasons British statistics are freely quoted in this connection, and are reduced into so many simplified forms as to leave as little undone as possible in regard to showing the nature, extent, and value of this vast trade, and the countries among which it is distributed.

RAW COTTON.

The cotton product of the several countries is estimated at about 3,500,000,000 pounds, viz

	Pounds.
Product of the United States	2,770,000,000
Product of the East Indies	407,000,000
Product of Egypt, Smyrna, &c	269,000,000
Product of Brazil	44,000,000
Product of the West Indies, &c	16,000,000
Total product	3,506,000,000

These figures show that the United States produces nearly four-fifths of the cotton crop of the world. While, therefore, it might not be safe to assert that the cotton-manufacturing nations are wholly dependent upon this country for their supplies of the raw material, it may be safely assumed that under a continuation of favorable circumstances, such as we may reasonably expect to prevail, it is beyond the productive power of any other country to compete with the United States in raw cotton, and that, at best, other countries can only hope to fill up what may be called the interstices of the trade, by supplying inferior and cheaper fiber to be mixed with American cotton, or to be used in the manufacture of inferior fabric.

During our civil war, when the cotton manufacturers of Europe were driven to extremities to find raw material enough to keep their mills running and their operatives employed, even on short time, and the disarrangement of this industry threatened so much disaster, great hopes were entertained by the government and people of England that the producing power of India would, to a large extent, render the British manufacturers independent of the United States for their cotton supply. Extraordinary efforts were therefore made for the development of the growth of cotton in India, and these efforts were considered highly satisfactory while our civil war lasted; but when peace opened our Southern ports to commerce, and when the Southern planters, with free labor, demonstrated the fact that the cotton-producing capacity of the United States had never before been fully appreciated, the growers of India and the manufacturers of England became convinced that competition with the United States was impossible. From that hour to the present all hopes of developing cotton culture in India to compete with the United States has been abandoned, and the British

Government and manufacturers have settled down to the conviction (expressed by the assistant secretary to the government of India, in his report upon the resources of that empire for the five years ending with 1879, and published by both houses of Parliament) that—

> The most we can expect is that our cotton will be taken because its cheapness as compared with American cotton will maintain a demand for it for purposes for which American, Brazilian, and Egyptian cotton is too dear, for the weaving of coarse cloths, for lamp-wicks, for quilting and stuffing, for which purpose [quilting and stuffing] it is extensively used in China, and other ordinary purposes.

The decrease in the acreage under cotton in India and the export of the fiber therefrom has been very remarkable. In 1875, according to a report from Consul-General Litchfield, of Calcutta, the area under cotton was 11,450,000 acres, while in 1878 it was only 8,000,000. In like manner, the exports of cotton decreased from 5,600,000 cwt., valued at $66,500,000, in 1875, to 2,900,000 cwt., valued at $35,000,000, in 1879. In 1875 the imports of raw cotton into British India amounted to 1,758,848 pounds, while in 1879 the imports had risen to 7,738,000 pounds.

The assistant secretary to the Indian government, in his report before alluded to, makes the following comparisons and arrives at the following conclusions concerning Indian and American cotton:

> The average yield per acre for the whole country may be taken, if the local returns are to be trusted, at about 50 pounds to the acre. For 1877–'78 it was stated in Madras at 49 pounds; in Bombay, including the native states, at 50¼ pounds; in the Northwestern Provinces at 29; in the Punjab, at 58; in the Central Provinces at 43; in Berar, at 71; in Nigam's country, at 61. At the general rate of 50 pounds to the acre the outturn would have been rather less than 4,000,000 cwt. The exports to foreign countries were, in 1877–'78, nearly 3,500,000; in 1878,–'79 nearly 3,000,000, so that if the figures for cultivation and outturn are even approximately correct, there is very little left for local consumption outside the mills, which alone consume between three-fourths of a million and a million cwt. But much faith cannot be placed in either the returns of acreage or those of outturn. Agricultural statistics generally, as obtained in India, are notoriously defective and inaccurate, and the statistics of cotton cultivation form no exception to the general rule. Probably the statements of average yield are more inaccurate than those of acreage, for though an approximately correct return of area may be obtained without very great difficulty, it is almost impossible to trust any cultivator's return of the yield of his land. It is probable that the average yield per acre in the cotton-growing districts approaches more nearly to 80 than to 50 pounds. But when we consider that a good yield in the United States is 200 pounds to the acre, the difficulty of maintaining a competition in this article with that country becomes manifest. The most that we can expect is that our cotton will be taken because its cheapness as compared with American cotton will maintain a demand for it for purposes for which American, Brazilian, and Egyptian cotton is too good and too dear, for the weaving of coarse cloths, for lamp-wicks, for quilting and stuffing, for which purpose it is extensively used in China, and other ordinary purposes. Latterly the demand for China had greatly fallen off; but with the cessation of famine there it has quite regained its old activity, and during the current year, in consequence of this revival, our exports of cotton actually exhibit an increase in quantity so far, instead of the normal decrease. But this activity has been aided by some apprehensions of a rather short American crop following on one last year which did not suffice for consumption, and by the stimulus recently given to the manufacturing industry in Lancashire. There has been a good continental demand, too, for Indian cotton, the result of the resumption of business after the general depression of trade and the cessation of hostilities in Southeastern Europe.

The exports of raw cotton from Egypt during the year 1874 amounted to $48,500,000, and during the year 1879 to $38,450,000, showing a considerable decrease in the product thereof.

In the matter of raw material the American manufacturers have an important advantage over all others. It should follow, therefore, that the country pre-eminent for its production of the raw material should

be equally pre-eminent for the manufacture of the same into all the various fabrics into which this staple enters, all other conditions being equal.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURES OF THE WORLD.

According to a recent English publication; * the value of the cotton manufactures of the world is given as follows:

Of the United Kingdom	$561, 170, 000
France	97, 200, 000
Germany	106, 920, 000
Russia	102. 060, 000
Belgium and Holland	63, 180, 000
Austria-Hungary	63, 180, 000
Italy	24, 300, 000
Spain, Switzerland, &c.	63, 000, 000
The United States	233, 280, 000
India	34, 020, 000
Total	$1, 348, 310, 000

It will be noted that the foregoing estimate does not include the value of goods manufactured by the older nations on the primitive hand-looms, it being too much the custom to omit from all manufacturing and commercial calculations those peoples who do not conform to the modern ideas of progress. It is not just, however, to leave out of any general calculation the manufactures of the Chinese, Persians, Africans, Japanese, and Arabians, who largely supply their own wants by the old hand-loom.

It is estimated that the Chinese supply themselves with cotton goods manufactured by hand-looms, in their primitive manner, to the extent of over 7,300,000,000 yards annually, an amount almost equal to twice the total annual exports of cotton piece goods from Great Britain. In a thorough review of the cotton manufactures of the world, it will be found that recognized official statistics are very much at fault in leaving out of calculation the hand-loom manufactures, for certain statisticians assume that the number of yards of cotton goods turned out annually in this manner exceeds that turned out by machinery, though this seems scarcely credible.

There is a very large field for the development of machine-made goods, for as those isolated people are brought under the beneficent influence of advanced civilization, the primitive modes of manufacture must yield before the more modern methods. Therefore, those who fear that the supply will become greater than the demand should take into account the hundreds of millions of people who are awaiting the advent of European and American civilization to avail themselves of our more perfect appliances for their daily wear; they should also take into account the increased ability to purchase, which every new invention creates, by bringing what were theretofore considered luxuries within the circle of ordinary consumption.

* Progress of the World. Mulhall, F. F. S. London, 1880.

THE COTTON-MANUFACTURING COUNTRIES.

According to the latest trustworthy statistics, the cotton-manufacturing industries of the principal countries may be estimated as follows:

Countries.	Number of operatives.	Number of spindles.
Great Britain	480,000	40,000,000
France	210,000	5,000,000
Germany	130,000	5,000,000
Russia	180,000	3,500,000
All other countries in Europe	250,000	6,600,000
Total for Europe	1,250,000	59,100,000
The United States	181,000	10,920,000
India	80,000	1,250,000
Grand total	1,511,000	71,270,000

Deducting from the number of American operatives, say 10,000, overseers, clerks, mechanics, and watchmen, to equalize them, relatively, with the operatives of the other countries, it will be seen that while one English operative runs a little over 83 spindles the American operative runs only 64½, the French operative only about 24, the German operative a little less than 39, while the Russian operative runs only a little more than 19. On the strength of this showing the English boast of the "superior efficiency" of their operatives. The question whether, notwithstanding this showing, the English operative accomplishes more than the American, is dealt with subsequently.

BRITISH VS. AMERICAN MANUFACTURES AND OPERATIVES.

The home consumption of cotton manufactures in the United Kingdoms—and this estimate, somewhat reduced, may be applied to the remainder of Europe—is estimated at 27 yards per capita annually, while the home consumption in the United States is estimated at 40 yards per capita. For China the estimate is 20 yards.

During the years 1877, 1878, and 1879 the raw cotton imported into the United Kingdom amounted to 4,165,056,000 pounds, of which 506,199,000 pounds were exported, leaving for consumption by the British mills 3,658,857,000 pounds, or about 1,220,000,000 pounds per annum.

According to the census returns, the consumption of cotton in the mills of the United States during the year 1880 amounted to 724,800,000 pounds, which is more than one-half the amount retained for consumption in the United Kingdom during the year 1879.

During the fiscal year 1880, the exports of American piece goods, according to our customs returns, amounted to 106,584,000 yards, while the home consumption, reckoned at 40 yards per capita, amounted to 2,000,000,000 yards. To this should be added at least 25,000,000 yards of piece goods exported to Canada and Mexico, which do not appear in our customs returns. This would give a total output of the American mills during the year 1880 of 2,131,580,000 yards. (See foot-note at page 88.)

The exports of British piece goods during the year 1880—the largest export in the history of the trade—amounted to 4,494,645,000 yards. Estimating the home consumption at 27 yards per capita, the total output of the British mills during this "red letter year" was 5,439,645,000 yards of piece goods.

The value of British piece goods exported during the year 1880 was as follows: Piece goods, plain, $168,909,000; printed piece goods, $108,348,000; mixed piece goods, cotton predominating, $2,654,000. Add the home consumption, computed as above, and assuming that the home consumption, as far as quality and price are concerned—which is undoubtedly an underestimate, but the safest approximation which can be given—was relatively the same as the exports, and we have an output for the year of $340,587,000 worth of piece goods for the British mills. The exports of twist and yarns amounted to $57,844,000, and of all other goods to $29,082,000. Calculating the home consumption of "all other goods" at an amount equal to one-third the exports, and we find the total value of British cotton manufactures to be, for the year 1880, $437,207,000, which is far nearer the real amount than that given by the British authority quoted in the foregoing page. At the utmost the total values of all cotton goods and yarns manufactured in the United Kingdom during the year 1880 did not exceed $450,000,000. The value of the raw cotton imported during the year, less the re-export thereof, was $181,312,000. The difference represents the value of the manufactured goods over the raw material.

In 1874, the latest official statistics in this connection at hand (and there must have been an increase since that time), there were 2,655 cotton mills in the United Kingdom, employing 187,260 male and 291,895 female operatives.

According to the foregoing statements, the United States, with about one-fourth the number of spindles running in the United Kingdom, and with 181,000 operatives against 500,000 British operatives, is credited with a production, the value of which is more than one-half that of the United Kingdom, although in piece goods the American output was only as one yard to about 2½ yards of British.

In confirmation of this startling exhibit, it appears from our census returns that the annual consumption of raw cotton by the mills of the United States amounts to 724,800,000 pounds, or more than one-half the consumption of the British mills in 1880. From these returns it is seen that every American spindle consumes 66 pounds of raw cotton, while each British spindle consumes only 32 pounds, or less than one-half the American consumption per spindle.

It thus appears that each American operative works up as much raw material as two British operatives, turns out nearly $1.50 worth of manufactures to the British operative's $1 worth, and even in piece goods, where the superior quality and weight of the American goods are so marked, the American operative turned out 2.75 yards to 2.50 yards by the British operative.

These statements require some qualifications in order to arrive at a proper understanding of the cotton-goods trade of both countries. For instance, the average price of British and American cottons exported during the year 1880, as given in the customs valuations of England and the United States was as follows: British piece goods, plain, 5.52 cents per yard; American piece goods, plain, 8.48 cents per yard; British prints, 7.68 cents per yard; American prints, 7.83 cents per yard.

Every yard of American plain piece goods represents in value more than one yard and a half of British goods of similar style, and undoubtedly contains more than that relative quantity of pure and solid material when compared with the British goods. While, therefore, the value of the output of the American mills may be more than one-half the value of the output of the British mills, the output in yards need not hold the same relative position for reasons given.

WAGES OF ENGLISH AND AMERICAN OPERATIVES.

WAGES IN ENGLAND.

In a report from Consul Shaw, of Manchester, dated October 2, 1878, and published in the volume giving the state of labor in Europe, the following table was given:

Statement showing the rate of wages paid per diem to the mill operatives of Manchester.

Pickers:	
Man	$0 90
Openers	55
Pickers	55
Carding-room:	
Overseer	1 75
Grinders	90
Stickers	95
Oilers	95
Lapboys	60
Cardboys	50
Strippers	65
Drawing-girls	75
Slubber-girls	75
Intermediate girls	75
Flyframe girls	75
Roving-boys	65
Sweeper	30
Warp spinning:	
Overseer	1 30
Second hand	65
Oiler and rover	50
Doffer	55
Assistant doffer	35
Girls (400 spindles each)	45
Mule-spinning:	
Overseer	1 70
Second hand	70
Buck boys	35
Spinners	1 70
Dressing-room:	
Overseer	1 40
Second hand	95
Spooler	60
Warper	90
Drawing-girl	70
Weaving-room:	
Overseer	1 70
Second hand	1 30
Section-hand	1 00
Weaver	62
Yard and watch:	
Watchman	84
Fireman	88
Shop:	
Foreman	2 00
Wood-workers	75
Iron-workers	75
Cloth-room:	
Overseer	1 70
Man	60
Folder	1 00
Inspector	1 00

In commenting on the strikes then imminent in Manchester, Consul Shaw, in the report transmitting the foregoing table, says:

The plea that the factory operatives in Manchester are now receiving higher wages in proportion to the time they work than American operatives is urgently made by manufacturers here, and, this, together with the increasing financial distress among mill-owners, is gradually allaying the discontent among operatives.

In another report from Consul Shaw, dated November 15, 1879, the following are given as the wages prevailing at that time in the Lancashire mills:

The following data, giving the rates of wages in several of the chief centers for manufactures in Lancashire, has been prepared by a gentleman connected with the trade, and can be accepted as reliable. The "wage-list" has been based upon the prices paid in the near past, and present wages will be shown in the reductions noted. The gentleman who prepared the same, writes that "the following information may meet your want. You can rely upon its being as fairly correct as possible. The inclosed price-list of 'Oldham and other shares' is from the Oldham Chronicle of last week. It is the best information of the kind you can have."

Average earnings per day of the operatives in an East Lancashire cotton-weaving mill.

[Hours of labor, 56 per week.]

		At present subject to a reduction of—
Weavers, 3 looms	$0 64 to $0 72	20 per cent.
Weavers, 4 looms	80 to 96	
Weavers, 6 looms	1 20 to 1 44	
Weavers, children (half-timers)	14	
Beamers or warpers	64 to 80	20 per cent.
Winders	40 to 72	10 per cent.
Tapers or sizers	1 20 to 1 68	5 per cent.
Tacklers or overlookers	1 12 to 1 68	15 per cent.
Engine-drivers and firemen	96 to 1 68	5 per cent.

Average earnings per day in an Oldham cotton-spinning mill.

[Hours of working, 56 per week.]

Mule overlooker	$1 60 to $2 00	
Carder	1 80	
Jobbers	96	
Drawing and slubbing hands	72 to 84	Now working at 15 per cent. reduction on these rates.
Intermediate and roving hands	68 to 84	
Little tenders (full-time)	36	
Little tenders (half-time)	16	

Average earnings per day in a Blackburn cotton-spinning mill.

[Hours of working, 56 per week.]

Present rates of wages—	
Spinning master and carders	$1 20 to $2 00
Spinner	1 20 to 1 40
Piercers	46 to 52
Creelers	28 to 34
Rovers	58 to 66
Slubbers	50 to 54
Drawers	52
Grinders	72
Blow-room hands	48 to 72
Engine-drivers	84 to 2 00
Firemen	64 to 84

The employments represented by the lower rates of wages (say from 28 to 72 cents) are filled chiefly by women, girls, and boys.

It may be a matter of interest to mention that in Hawarth's mill, one of the largest and most complete in all Lancashire, where some 2,500 operatives are employed, 70 per cent. of these are women; 40 per cent. of the women are under 20 years of age, and 10 per cent. of them are under the age of 15.

A still later report from Consul Shaw gives the following as the wages prevailing January, 1880:

WAGES OF ENGLISH FACTORY OPERATIVES.

The following average earnings per day of operatives in this consular district have been carefully prepared, and represent fairly the wages of this great manufacturing center.

Average earnings per day in an East Lancashire cotton-weaving mill.

[Hours of labor, 56 per week.]

Weavers, 3 looms	$0 64 to $0 72	Jan'y 1, 1880.—At present subject to a reduction of 10 per cent.	
Weavers, 4 looms	80 to 96		
Weavers, 6 looms	1 20 to 1 44		
Weavers, children (half-timers)	14		
Beamers or warpers	64 to 80	January 1, 1880.—At present subject to a reduction of from 5 to 10 per cent.	
Winders	40 to 72		
Tapers or sizers	1 20 to 1 68		
Tacklers or overlookers	1 12 to 1 68		
Engine-drivers and firemen	96 to 1 68		

Average earnings per day in an Oldham cotton and spinning mill.

[Hours of working, 56 per week.]

Mule overlookers	$1 60 to $2 00	
Carder	1 60 to 1 80	
Strippers, Jobbers, Grinders	96	Less 10 per cent.
Drawing and slubbing hands	72 to 84	Now working on 15 per cent. reduction on these rates.
Intermediate and roving hands	68 to 84	
Little tenders (full-time)	36	
Little tenders (half-time)	16	

Average earnings per day in a Blackburn cotton spinning mill.

[Hours of working, 56 per week.]

Spinning masters and carders	$1 20 to $2 00
Spinners	1 20 to 1 40
Piecers	46 to 56
Creelers	28 to 34
Rovers	58 to 66
Slubbers	50 to 60
Drawers	52 to 56
Grinders	85
Blow-room hands	48 to 85
Engine-drivers	84 to 2 00
Firemen	64 to 84

The employments represented by the lower rates of wages (say from 28 to 72 cents) are filled chiefly by women or girls and boys. In Haworth's mill, one of the largest and finest in this district, where 2,500 operatives are employed, 70 per cent. of these are women; 40 per cent. of the women are under twenty years of age, and 10 per cent. of them are under fifteen. This may be taken as approximating to the general average percentage of employment so far as sex and age are concerned.

WAGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

As Lancashire represents the most advanced features in the English cotton-manufacturing industry, so Massachusetts may be taken as representative of the best features of the American industry. The following tables, showing the rates of wages prevailing in the Massachusetts cotton mills, taken from the report of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor of that State for the year 1881, are therefore given for comparative purposes with

the rates prevailing in Lancashire. It may be here remarked that the hours of labor in Massachusetts are shorter and the wages somewhat higher than the hours and wages of most of the other cotton-manufacturing States of New England.

Wages and hours of labor in the cotton mills of Massachusetts.

	Goods manufactured.	Proportion of employés in each 100.				Average pay of each class per week.			
		Men.	Women.	Male children.	Female children.	Men.	Women.	Male children.	Female children.
	COTTON.								
1	Cottonades	35	45	10	10	$8 00	$5 50	$2 50	$2 50
2	Cotton cloth	46	30	14	10	10 49	6 92	3 25	4 16
3	....do	15	70	10	5	6 00	3 00	2 50	2 50
4	....do	30	60	5	5	7 92	5 25	2 50	2 50
5	....do	35	65			9 00	6 00	4 50	4 00
6	....do	45	44	5	6				
7	Cotton goods	24	63	6	7	7 92	4 98	2 28	2 28
8	....do	36	44	12	8	7 00	5 00	3 50	3 00
9	....do	45	45	5	5	7 00	4 50	4 00	3 00
10	....do	33	57	5	5	7 50	5 00	3 00	3 00
11	....do	40	60	60	40	9 41	5 84	3 83	3 02
12	....do	29	71			7 50	4 86		
13	....do	36	44	10	10	9 50	6 00	3 50	3 50
14	....do	13	38	25	24	7 50	6 00	3 00	2 75
15	....do	25	50	11	14	7 50	4 50	3 00	3 00
16	Cotton goods and hosiery	26	40	16	18	7 75	6 00	3 50	3 50
17	Prints	25	55	12	8	9 60	5 00	2 50	2 50
18	Cotton and worsted goods	43	47	5	5	8 00	6 00	3 00	2 40
19	Cotton duck and yarn	25	10	30	35	11 00	7 00	4 00	4 50
20	Cotton flannel	35	45	10	10	7 50	5 50	2 50	2 50
21	Ginghams	10	70	8	12				
22	Print cloths	35	45	10	10	10 00	7 50	2 67	3 75
23	....do	35	45	10	10				
24	....do	35	48	12	5	7 00	5 00	2 50	2 50
25	....do	33	50	12	5	8 00	5 00	2 50	2 50
26	....do	32	41	13	14				
27	....do	36	44	12	8	10 25	6 50	3 67	4 00
28	....do	34	49	15	2				
29	....do	35	45	10	10				
30	Sheetings, shirtings, &c								
31	Sheetings, silesias, and fancy cottons.	15	75	6	4	8 00	7 00	3 00	3 00
32	Towels and cotton duck	30	60	5	5	9 00	6 00	3 50	3 50

[Table continued on next page.]

Wages and hours of labor in the cotton mills of Massachusetts—Continued.

	Goods manufactured.	Pay of spinners per week.		Pay of weavers per week.		Pay of piece weavers per week.		Hours of labor.		
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Five days.	Saturday.	Per week.
	COTTON.									
1	Cottonades	$10 00	$4 86			$10 60	$3 50	10	10	60
2	Cot on cloth	11 41	11 08	$10 18	$7 62	23 10		10	10	60
3	do	8 50	3 50	8 50	4 20			10	10	60
4	do	6 00	3 50	8 00	4 00			10	10	60
5	do	9 00	3 00	10 00	4 50			10	10	60
6	do	11 42		10 62	2 70			10	10	60
7	Cotton goods	11 01	9 60			9 70	3 50	10	10	60
8	do	10 00	5 00	7 50	4 50			10	10	60
9	do	10 00	5 00	7 00	4 00			10	10	60
10	do	9 00	8 00	6 00	4 50			10	10	60
11	do	9 50	7 25	10 71	5 81			10½	7½	60
12	do	11 70	10 08	8 00	4 00			10½	8½	60
13	do	12 00	8 00	11 00	7 50			10½	7½	60
14	do							10	10	60
15	do	10 00	9 00	7 20	4 50			10	10	60
16	Cotton goods and hosiery	9 00	6 60			9 00	3 60	10	10	60
17	Prints	9 60	8 40	9 00	4 50	9 00	4 50	10	10	60
18	Cotton and worsted goods	12 00	5 40	11 00	7 00			10	10	60
19	Cotton duck and yarn	4 20	3 65	10 00	4 00			10	10	60
20	Cotton flannel			9 00	3 50	9 00	3 50	10	10	60
21	Ginghams	10 00	7 50	10 00	6 00			10	10	60
22	Print cloths	13 36	10 25	10 08	5 04			10	10	60
23	do	11 50	9 00			10 08	5 00	10	10	60
24	do	9 00	7 00	7 00	4 00			10	10	60
25	do	10 00	7 00	8 00	4 00			10	10	60
26	do							10	10	60
27	do	13 25	10 00			11 08	7 62	10½	7½	60
28	do	10 62	9 70			9 52	6 20	10	10	60
29	do	11 86	10 43	8 00	5 50			10	10	60
30	Sheetings, shirtings, &c	9 30	7 20	7 50	5 30			10	10	60
31	Sheetings, silesias, and fancy cottons.	9 00	4 50	8 25	6 00	9 50	7 00	10	10	60
32	Towels and cotton duck	6 00	3 50	7 00	4 00			10	10	60

Owing to the different arrangements of the English and American tables of wages, it is difficult to give comparative analyses thereof which would show at a glance the difference in the wages of the operatives of both countries.

The wages of spinners and weavers in Lancashire and in Massachusetts, according to the foregoing statements, were as follows, per week:

Spinners: English, $7.20 to $8.40 (master spinners running as high as $12); American, $7.07 to $10.30.

Weavers: English, $3.84 to $8.64, subject, at the date on which these rates were given, to a reduction of 10 per cent.; American, $4.82 to $8.73.

The average wages of employés in the Massachusetts mills is as follows, according to the official returns: Men, $8.30; women, $5.62; male children, $3.11; female children, $3.08. According to Consul Shaw's report, the average wages of the men employed in the Lancashire mills on the 1st of January, 1880, was about $8 per week, subject to a reduction of 10 per cent.; women from $3.40 to $4.30, subject to a reduction of 10 per cent.

The hours of labor in the Lancashire mills are 56, in the Massachusett mills 60 per week. The hours of labor in the mills in the other New England States, where the wages are generally less than in Massachusetts, are usually 66 to 69 per week.

Undoubtedly the inequalities in the wages of English and American

operatives are more than equalized by the greater efficiency of the latter and their longer hours of labor. If this should prove to be a fact in practice, as it seems to be proven from official statistics, it would be a very important element in the establishment of our ability to compete with England for our share of the cotton-goods trade of the world.

HOW TO INCREASE OUR COTTON-GOODS TRADE.

In the two prime factors which may be said to form the basis of the cotton manufacturing industry, namely, raw material and labor, we hold the advantage over England in the first, and stand upon an equality with her in the second.

Having the raw material at our doors, it follows that we should be able to convert it into manufactures, all things else being equal, with more economy and facility than can be done by England, which imports our cotton and then manufactures it in her mills. The expense of handling, transportation, and commission, must be an important item in this regard, as compared with our turning in the fiber from the cotton fields to our mills and shipping it in the advanced form of manufactured goods. Add to this the secondary fact that it costs us no more, to handle and manufacture the same than it costs in England, and we stand on an undoubted equality, thus far, in the race of competition.

A question of the utmost importance, therefore, is to find out wherein the British manufacturers possess advantages over us, and then to ascertain whether we can offset them so as to produce that general equalization which will enable us to meet our competitors on even ground in the markets of the world.

The British cotton manufacturing industry fills a larger space in commercial activity and history than any other single manufacturing industry of that or any other country. Taking into consideration the capital invested and the labor employed, the genius which it has evoked and the honors which have crowned that genius, the endless steam marine, the number of merchants, clerks, and sailors engaged in its world-wide distribution, and the British impress which it has left everywhere, and it is not too much to say that it has done more for the commercial greatness and supremacy of the United Kingdom than all other manufacturing industries combined. Hence it is regarded as peculiarly a British national industry, and the manufacturers of the United States must be prepared to meet an opposition, in any serious effort which they may make for a division of this trade, which will be sustained by almost unlimited capital, and directed by great ability and well-bought experience.

The principal advantages possessed over us by the British manufacturers may be summed up as follows:

1. Possession of the world's markets, the result of years of persistent and practical effort, which enables them to know and respond to the wants and peculiarities of all classes, from the adulterated and cheap cottons demanded by the Chinese to the higher class of goods demanded by the European and American trade.

2. The admirable system which has belted the world with *entrepôts*, principally colonial, for the reception and distribution of British goods, subsidized by British branch houses, or partnerships with responsible local houses, in every market in the world. Hereby British trade is directed by parties personally interested in its development, instead of being consigned to commission men, who could have, at best, but a

passive interest in its introduction and advancement, and who would, doubtless, feel that when they had completed the rough introductory work others might step in and reap the profits. Under these circumstances, to expect such parties to meet and overcome the hostility and opposition of established trade-relations would certainly result in disappointment.

3. A steam marine which covers every sea and gives direct and speedy communication with every port, and whoes management and direction are solely in the interest of the British export trade and against all competing trade.

4. Vast capital, which enables the British manufacturers to keep large stocks on hand, and to give three, six, or twelve months' credit to their customers, according to the usages prevalent in the several markets.

5. A far-seeing and far-reaching spirit, which impels the British manufacturer to continue trading, even when he loses thereby, until he tires out all opposition, and, at length, wins permanent trade and profit; for the British trader, once entered upon any market, remains, and thus all business men may rely upon a constant supply of British goods.

6. An industry which has passed through its experimental and speculative stages, and whose foundations are solidly resting upon vast and permanent capital—capital controlled by men of great ability, enlarged experience, consummate courage and true conservatism. Rejecting all temptations to outside speculation or illegitimate gains, and devoting themselves with singular energy to their own great field of trade, they have become its masters by right of conquest.

These advantages, while undoubtedly great, are not of such a nature as to be discouraging. It certainly should be easier for us to overcome these advantages than it was for England to overcome the disadvantage of being compelled to import the raw material from our cotton fields, as well as from those of India and Egypt, and then build up her cotton industry to its present vast proportions.

The remedial measures for many of the disadvantages under which our cotton manufacturers labor, as compared with the British manufacturers, in seeking foreign markets for their goods, lie within their own reach and can be immediately applied. Others, such as our great drawback in having to depend upon foreign nations to effect our carrying trade, can only be overcome by national legislation, which it is to be hoped will speedily be provided.

Our manufacturers, themselves, must establish branch houses, or partnerships with trustworthy local houses, as the British manufacturers have done.

To consign goods to persons engaged in British, French, or German trade, and whose direct interests are best promoted by the development of that trade, as has been repeatedly done, according to our consular reports, and expect by such means to build up an international commerce, must always result in disappointment.

To seek the medium of unknown or irresponsible agents, who may have no commercial standing in their communities, and who, like soldiers of fortune, are willing to undertake anything which holds out a promise of profit, is still more experimental and dangerous.

The parties to introduce and enlarge American trade in the various markets must be men of undoubted standing, and they must be directly interested in prosecuting their work.

Neither should our manufacturers expect immediate profit from intro-

ductory trade, but learn from the British manufacturers the patience, perseverance, and cost which are necessary for its permanency.

Neither must they withdraw from a market when once they have opened correspondence and trade relations therewith, simply because they may find it more profitable to supply the trade elsewhere. Such procedure causes great loss and vexation to the merchants who may have sundered old commercial relations with other nations to enter into what seemed better and equally permanent relations with the United States and produces prejudice which may for years militate against American trade under such circumstances. As an illustration of this phase of our intercourse with foreign merchants, the following extracts from a report upon American manufactures in Australia, by Mr. Pickering, United States commissioner to the Melbourne Exposition, is especially appropriate:

I am pleased to be able to report that a very fair business is being done by many of our exhibitors, notably those of agricultural implements, railway appliances, plated wares, sewing-machines, railway and other platform scales, leather goods, &c., and it would be well for our manufacturers in the United States to use their utmost exertion to retain the trade thus secured at these Australian exhibitions. Heretofore they have too frequently made, as it were, a convenience of foreign orders, neglecting them in times of business pressure at home, and finding difficulty in regaining the trade when business depression causes them to again seek foreign orders.

Foreign markets require special attention, and the generally acknowledged superiority of American manufactures causes them to be preferred when a supply can be relied upon. It should be borne in mind, however, that the consumer does not deal directly with the producer, and that the merchant who acts for both producer and consumer prefers to obtain his supplies from a source upon which he can rely in times of business expansion as well as in times of depression. This applies more especially to the trade in Australia, situated, as it is, so far from the producing centers of the world.

The great natural resources of Australia are too great to allow the present business depression to be anything but temporary. It would be well for our manufacturers to bear this in mind, and those who have or who desire to have a share of this Australian trade should assure the merchants here that they may rely on being supplied with goods at the sacrifice (if necessary) of a few home orders. I am the more impressed to urge this, having just been shown a letter received by the agent of a Philadelphia firm who are exhibiting here, from which I quote: "*Send us no more orders at present; our home demands prevent us filling foreign orders for some time to come.*"

The probability is that when this firm is again desirous of sending goods to Australia they will find that, while the merchants prefer the American goods, they have been compelled, in order to protect their trade, to send their orders to some source from whence they can rely on always being supplied.—(*Melbourne, January* 24, 1881.)

As a fitting close to the subject of increasing our cotton-goods trade, the following extract from a very interesting report on the cotton manufactures of Lancashire, by Consul Shaw, of Manchester, is submitted. This report, not being in answer to the cotton-goods circular sent out from this Department, immediately follows this letter as an appendix, as it contains matter which must be of direct interest to our manufacturers. It will be seen that the principle of representative houses, or local partnerships, in the several markets, as the best means of introducing and enlarging American trade—a principle which has been advocated for the last four years by this Department—is especially dwelt upon by Consul Shaw:

The vast commerce of this part of England with nearly all the world is a subject worthy of careful study, and the lesson which it teaches is one American manufacturers and merchants would do well to examine with great care.

The colossal industries which have their center in Lancashire are the outgrowth of capital and intelligence, of economical and skilled methods of production, combined with wise methods in disposing of the products of factories in foreign countries.

Two principal elements in this problem are: first, the excellent system of partnerships existing between foreign and home firms; and, second, the marvelous perfection and extent of the English banking system. I am convinced that so long as Americans neglect to follow the plan adopted by English manufacturers and merchants of forming partnerships wherever it is intended to make a push to introduce their manufac-

tures, just so long will they be compelled to compete for a share of the present foreign trade at a very great disadvantage. At present in India, in South Africa, in China, in Japan, and, in short, in all the countries where English manufactures are sold, English partnerships exist with leading foreign firms. These connections are of the utmost importance, and enable English manufacturers to determine with confidence what the needs and tastes of the native markets are, because the English partner makes it his special study to master these points.

This plan increases and, so to speak, *fortifies* the influence of English merchants, and aids in extending a demand for English manufactures. It has taken many years to develop this admirable system, now so useful to English manufacturers, and the wise thing for our people to do is to promptly follow the English example and form partnerships in far-away centers precisely as they have so successfully done heretofore.

This plan leads to a full knowledge of the financial standing of dealers—a very desirable point in trading with foreigners. It is not a question of ships that most deeply affects this consideration under review, but is simply a question of a better system of reaching the native dealers and of securing a footing among them. Foreigners, as a rule, are slow and suspicious about adopting new inventions, and in eastern countries the prejudices of the native population are very difficult to overcome. It is easier and wiser for manufacturers to first ascertain what will suit foreign consumers, and then supply the demand, than to attempt to secure the introduction of fabrics that are unknown and unsuited to the popular notion of fitness and fashion.

The plan in England is to send out well-trained experts as partners in distant foreign houses, and through their local knowledge and influence the right sort of manufactures are furnished. It will take time and study and patience to establish such a connection for American manufacturers, but this is the proper system, beyond question, which must be adopted before our excellent manufactures can compete on anything like even terms with those of other countries already possessing this kind of trade connection.

The second point named, viz, *that of far reaching banking facilities of England*, is hardly less important than the first. Wherever English manufactures find a market on the globe, English banking ramifications extend. While commerce in this age does not necessarily "follow the flag," it does, to a considerable extent, follow the convenience and safety which good banking facilities provide in far-off countries. English manufacturers owe much to the agency of these two elements, for under the splendid organizations of partnerships and banking privileges their present strong position in the great markets of the world has been secured.

American manufacturers cannot hope, and should not expect, to at once step to the front in eastern markets, under present conditions, even when they have superior manufactures to offer, owing to the prejudices and the habits of trade of the native dealers. English merchants understand this question and have met the difficulties in the way I have briefly pointed out. With resident American partners in foreign trade centers, and American banking accommodations established, it would not be long before the demand for many lines of American manufactures would increase many fold. Of the truth of this view no one can entertain a doubt who has carefully examined the question. The frank view of a leading English merchant in India upon this point has led me to refer to it thus fully; and I believe too little attention has been given to this matter in the past by our people.

Statistical tables collated from British official publications, reduced to American values, and arranged in every form which could help to give our manufacturers a complete view of the British cotton-goods trade, will be found immediately following this letter.

The first series of these tables, showing the exports of British cotton goods to the several countries, and giving the quantities and values, is given according to the British official arrangements, with the reduction of the values to dollars, and the addition of the prices per pound and yard.

The second series shows the amounts and value of the several sorts of cotton goods exported from Great Britain to each country and colony—the various quantities and values being combined under each respective country or colony—arranged by continents.

The third series shows the total quantities and values of all the cotton goods exported to each country or colony, arranged by continents.

The fourth series shows the total quantities and values of the several sorts of cotton goods exported to the several continents.

A study of these tables will enable our manufacturers not only to ap-

preciate the extent and distribution of this large trade, but it will enable them, to a great extent, to appreciate the quality of goods required by the various countries and continents, for we may reasonably assume that the British manufacturers supply the demands of the various markets, consulting their tastes and prejudices, instead of assuming an arbitrary standard of their own and forcing it upon the world.

For instance, the following statement of the prices of yarns and cotton piece goods, taken from the first series of the foregoing tables and founded on British official valuations, must at once show our manufacturers the quality of the goods required by the several continents, even to the very shadings of the differences between the several countries and colonies.

Statement showing the average prices of British cotton yarns and piece goods exported during the year 1880.

Whither exported.	Yarns, per pound.	Plain piece goods, per yard.	Printed piece goods, per yard.	Mixed piece goods, per yard.
CONTINENT OF AFRICA:	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
Egypt	23.47	5.62	7.86	.....
Tripoli and Tunis	.....	.....	8.67	.....
Algeria	.....	5.49	6.90	.....
Morocco	.....	6.21	9.00	.....
West coast, foreign	.....	4.51	6.07	.....
East coast, native	.....	5.34	7.08	.....
West coast, British	.....	5.24	7.24	.....
South Africa, British	.....	7.95	9.70	15.18
Mauritius	.....	5.50	6.74	.....
CONTINENT OF ASIA:				
Persia	24.32	6.64	9.51	.....
Dutch India	34.53	6.90	7.37	20.30
Philippine Islands	30.54	6.21	7.21	15.26
China	21.53	5.26	9.11	28.77
Japan	20.48	5.43	8.93	17.53
British India:				
Bombay and Scinde	29.24	4.84	6.52	}
Madras	29.56	5.34	7.25	} 15.30
Bengal and Burmah	33.52	4.94	6.49	}
Straits Settlements	27.90	5.09	7.37	11.95
Ceylon	.....	5.93	7.20	.....
Hong-Kong	21.51	5.65	9.09	.....
CONTINENT OF AMERICA:				
British North America	.....	8.35	8.35	10.44
United States	33.33	9.90	11.25	16.60
West Indies, not British	.....	7.16	7.49	10.88
British	.....	6.23	6.72	14.81
Mexico	.....	6.06	7.22	12.73
Central America	25.64	5.23	7.15	.....
United States of Colombia	.....	5.78	6.75	.....
Venezuela	.....	5.93	6.62	.....
Ecuador	.....	6.34	7.75	.....
Peru	.....	5.48	7.50	.....
Chili	.....	5.32	6.66	.....
Brazil	23.20	5.65	7.52	11.79
Uruguay	.....	6.17	8.06	10.90
Argentine Republic	.....	6.29	7.26	13.34
AUSTRALASIA	.....	9.59	10.15	13.41
CONTINENT OF EUROPE:				
Russia	28.72	7.70	10.89	.....
Sweden and Norway	25.13	6.28	8.63	.....
Denmark	21.71	7.14	9.21	.....
Germany	28.52	8.14	9.22	15.58
Holland	26.95	6.74	8.81	10.73
Belgium	35.14	8.15	10.20	15.72
France	43.25	7.94	10.57	16.55
Portugal	51.69	5.37	7.60	.....
Spain and Canaries	22.90	8.57	9.28	11.31
Italy	22.90	5.82	8.20	.....
Gibraltar	.....	5.93	7.77	.....

Statement showing the average prices of British cotton yarns, &c.— Continued.

Whither exported.	Yarns, per pound.	Plain piece goods, per yard.	Printed piece goods, per yard.	Mixed piece goods, per yard.
CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
Malta	.....	5.72	5.92	.....
Austria-Hungary	22.82	5.86	8.20	.....
Greece	21.93	5.78	8.48	.....
Roumania	19.96	5.99	6.49	.....
Turkey	23.21	6.26	7.41	16.05
AVERAGE PER CONTINENT:				
Africa	23.47	5.74	7.69	15.18
America	27.91	6.38	7.60	12.68
Asia	27.30	5.66	7.82	18.18
Australasia	.....	9.59	10.15	13.41
Europe	28.20	6.71	8.56	14.32

It is shown by the foregoing statement that the lowest priced British piece goods exported were those sent to the foreign west coast of Africa, 4.51 cents per yard, while those sent to India are valued at 4.84 cents per yard, followed by the exports to the Straits Settlements, 5.09 cents per yard, which latter are followed by the exports to China, 5.26 per yard.

While all our consular reports bear evidence of the fact that both India and China are growing tired of British adulterated goods—for the greater portion of them must be adulterations in order to render it possible to sell them at such low rates as those given above—the great counter-argument of the increased exports from England arises to dispute this consular opinion. The fact, however, that British manufacturers have held possession of those markets, and all the avenues leading thereto, for years, and that, in the words of the consul-general at Calcutta, "although American goods are decidedly superior, it would be no easy matter to substitute them for the British goods, since the importers and native middlemen are almost able to dictate to the poor consumer what he shall buy," must be taken into consideration in all calculations concerning these markets.

The very high quality of plain and printed piece goods exported to Australasia is noteworthy. In those colonies we should have no great trouble in competing successfully for a fair share of their trade.

As far as Europe is concerned, it will be noted that, outside of the cotton manufacturing countries, the quality of British goods sold is not much superior to those sold in Africa and Asia, and, with the exception of British North America, the United States, and the foreign West Indies, the same holds good of the continent of America.

The total exports of British piece goods during the year 1880 were as follows, by continents: To Africa, $17,979,000; to America, $57,458,000; to Asia, $135,193,000; to Europe, $61,505,000; to Australasia, $6,565,000; not designated, $1,400,000; total, $280,100,000. It may be safely asserted that not more than $60,000,000 worth of these exports were pure goods, the remainder being low-priced goods into which adulterating materials entered more or less extensively.

If, therefore, the Asiatics and Africans, as so many affect to believe, and to which belief the continued open sale of the goods lends strength, prefer British clayed goods, on account of their cheapness, to pure American manufactures, it follows that unless we also resort to adulteration

we can only expect to compete in a large way for the cotton-goods trade of about half of Europe, a small portion of Africa and Asia, a few countries in America, and all of Australia.

On the other hand, if, as our consuls assert, the consumers in all countries prefer pure goods to the adulterated, and if it only requires time and hard labor to convince them that the best is the cheapest—as some sections of Africa have become convinced—the general outlook for our manufacturers is promising. We have only to continue the manufacture of pure cottons; use all the trade appliances of supply and distribution which have been put into operation by British manufacturers; study the tastes and habits of the various countries; survey all markets before entering commercially thereon; sacrifice profits for a time, if necessary, to secure trade-standing in the several markets; treat the consumers honorably; let all goods be as represented; and the several roads to universal trade are more open to us to day than they were to the British manufacturers thirty years ago.

The cotton-goods trade of the world is a vast subject and requires the best consideration of American manufacturers—united consideration to be followed by united action—but if the same masterly direction of forces be applied toward its diversion to the United States as have been applied by the statesmen and manufacturers of Great Britain to the development of their trade, the world offers a field large enough for the consumption of all the manufactures we can produce, even were our entire product of the raw material converted into American cloth, instead of being exported in such large quantities as it is at present.

In the matter of packing, our manufacturers are far behind the British and French. Surely there is nothing to prevent an immediate reformation in this branch of the trade. The British consul at Shanghai, China, in a report dated October, 1878, otherwise complimentary to our goods, wrote as follows concerning our packing: "The preparation, wrapping, packing, and shipment of American goods are as yet clumsily done, and an excessive proportion of them arrive damaged by sea-water. English cottons, on the other hand, are so well packed, and so carefully carried by the canal steamers, that damage from that cause is now very rare."

The attention of our cotton-goods exporters is directed to the tariffs on cotton manufactures of the several countries and colonies, carefully prepared from official sources, which will be found in the supplement.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

JAMES G. BLAINE.

The Hon. SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

APPENDIX TO THE SECRETARY'S LETTER.

STATEMENTS SHOWING THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF ENGLAND DURING THE CALENDER YEAR 1880.

FIRST SERIES: BY COUNTRIES, QUANTITIES, AND VALUES.

1.—EXPORTS OF COTTON TWIST AND YARN.

Whither exported.	Quantity.	Value.	Price per pound.
	Pounds.	*Dollars.*	*Cents.*
Russia	10,207,700	2,931,000	28.72
Sweden and Norway	3,867,200	972,000	25.13
Denmark	3,680,600	802,000	21.71
Germany	28,520,700	8,136,000	28.52
Holland	30,640,900	8,257,000	26.95
Belgium	5,861,900	2,057,000	35.14
France	4,954,500	2,143,000	43.25
Spain	178,000	92,000	51.69
Italy	10,530,300	2,411,000	22.90
Austria-Hungary	1,985,300	452,000	22.82
Greece	906,500	199,000	21.93
Roumania	2,385,300	476,000	19.96
Turkey	9,341,400	2,168,000	23.21
Egypt	2,942,000	690,000	23.47
Persia	322,100	78,000	24.22
Dutch India	999,200	345,000	34.53
Philippine Islands	1,241,400	379,000	30.54
China	2,731,300	588,000	21.53
Japan	26,912,200	5,497,000	20.43
United States	783,200	262,000	33.33
Central America	549,600	141,000	25.64
Brazil	711,300	165,000	23.20
Malta	529,800	107,000	20.19
British India:			
Bombay and Scinde	12,450,800	3,650,000	29.24
Madras	12,089,400	3,567,000	29.56
Bengal and Burmah	19,557,500	6,555,000	33.52
Straits Settlements	2,838,300	802,000	27.90
Hong-Kong	16,782,800	3,611,000	21.51
Other countries	1,043,600	311,000	29.78
Total	215,544,800	57,844,000	26.83

2.—EXPORTS OF COTTON PIECE GOODS PLAIN.

	Yards.	*Dollars.*	*Per yard.*
Russia	4,479,100	345,000	7.70
Sweden and Norway	6,477,300	407,000	6.28
Denmark	7,351,700	525,000	7.14
Germany	21,492,400	1,750,000	8.14
Holland	19,686,300	1,337,000	6.74
Belgium	17,293,900	1,409,000	8.15
France	22,773,300	1,803,000	7.94
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	59,641,000	3,203,000	5.37
Spain and Canaries	7,073,400	607,000	8.57

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

2.—EXPORTS OF COTTON PIECE GOODS, PLAIN—Continued.

Whither exported.	Quantity.	Value.	Price per yard.
	Yards.	*Dollars.*	*Per yard.*
Italy	30,216,400	1,759,000	5.82
Austria-Hungary	3,571,000	209,000	5.86
Greece	20,510,200	1,186,000	5.78
Roumania	14,047,300	841,000	5.99
Turkey	223,107,600	13,846,000	6.26
Egypt	119,849,400	6,736,000	5.62
Algeria	8,230,500	452,000	5.49
Morocco	15,252,100	948,000	6.21
West Africa (foreign)	7,227,500	326,000	4.51
East Africa (native)	2,635,600	141,000	5.34
Persia	8,413,700	559,000	6.64
Dutch India	39,053,500	2,607,000	6.90
Philippine Islands	28,383,600	1,764,000	6.21
China	258,834,100	13,618,000	5.26
Japan	35,501,300	1,925,000	5.43
United States	25,377,400	2,513,000	9.90
Foreign West Indies	30,848,000	2,211,000	7.16
Mexico	15,012,700	909,000	6.06
Central America	19,515,000	1,020,000	5.23
United States of Colombia	20,662,900	1,196,000	5.78
Venezuela	8,727,900	491,000	5.93
Ecuador	6,750,600	428,000	6.34
Peru	3,815,900	209,000	5.48
Chili	34,670,000	1,857,000	5.32
Brazil	104,858,600	5,929,000	5.65
Uruguay	19,528,600	1,205,000	6.17
Argentine Republic	29,163,400	1,837,000	6.29
Gibraltar	15,811,200	938,000	5.93
Malta	16,130,100	923,000	5.72
West Africa (British)	14,280,500	753,000	5.34
South Africa (British)	8,459,400	673,000	7.95
Mauritius	5,029,900	277,000	5.50
British India:			
Bombay and Scinde	429,559,200	20,786,000	4.84
Madras	56,307,000	3,008,000	5.34
Bengal and Burmah	875,389,800	43,200,000	4.94
Straits Settlements	95,287,300	4,875,000	5.09
Ceylon	20,171,100	1,196,000	5.93
Hong-Kong	152,411,300	8,636,000	5.65
Australia	29,892,500	2,867,000	9.59
British North America	6,631,900	554,000	8.35
British West Indies and Guiana	20,803,400	1,293,000	6.23
Other countries	11,768,100	724,000	6.15
Total	3,057,965,900	168,910,000	5.52

3.—EXPORTS OF COTTON PIECE GOODS, PRINTED.

	Yards.	*Dollars.*	*Per yard.*
Russia	4,865,300	530,000	10.89
Sweden and Norway	3,939,100	340,000	8.63
Denmark	3,691,000	340,000	9.21
Germany	21,759,700	2,007,000	9.22
Holland	22,330,000	1,968,000	8.81
Belgium	5,764,800	588,000	10.20
France	33,412,600	3,533,000	10.57
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	9,898,200	753,000	7.60
Spain and Canaries	10,303,100	957,000	9.28
Italy	30,357,900	2,517,000	8.29
Austria-Hungary	2,134,400	175,000	8.20
Greece	13,239,600	1,123,000	8.48
Roumania	29,231,500	1,895,000	6.49
Turkey	160,606,900	12,004,000	7.49
Egypt	24,261,800	1,807,000	7.41
Tripoli and Tunis	727,300	63,000	8.86
Algeria	4,012,000	277,000	6.67
Morocco	1,371,700	126,000	9.90
West Africa (foreign)	31,148,000	1,895,000	6.07
East Africa (native)	2,183,900	155,000	7.08
Persia	1,787,500	170,000	9.51
Dutch India	37,279,600	2,590,000	7.37
Philippine Islands	22,863,500	1,648,000	7.21
China	25,501,300	2,333,000	9.1

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

3.—EXPORTS OF COTTON PIECE GOODS, PRINTED—Continued.

Whither exported.	Quantity.	Value.	Price per yard.
	Yards.	*Dollars.*	*Per yard.*
Japan	25, 539, 300	2, 280, 000	8. 93
United States	51, 584, 100	5, 837, 000	11. 25
Foreign West Indies	44, 928, 900	3, 363, 000	7. 40
Mexico	19, 052, 100	1, 375, 000	7. 22
Central America	11, 961, 600	855, 000	7. 15
United States of Colombia	25, 615, 900	1, 725, 000	6. 75
Venezuela	13, 363, 300	885, 000	6. 62
Ecuador	7, 568, 900	573, 000	7. 57
Peru	2, 765, 300	209, 000	7. 59
Chili	34, 056, 800	2, 270, 000	6. 66
Brazil	125, 617, 000	9, 547, 000	7. 52
Uruguay	18, 441, 200	1, 487, 000	8. 06
Argentine Republic	30, 652, 400	2, 226, 000	7. 26
Gibraltar	9, 376, 600	729, 000	7. 77
Malta	12, 884, 400	763, 000	5. 92
West Africa (British)	20, 390, 200	1, 477, 000	7. 24
South Africa (British)	15, 584, 100	1, 511, 000	9. 70
Mauritius	3, 936, 600	267, 000	6. 74
British India:			
Bombay and Scinde	121, 719, 200	8, 238, 000	6. 52
Madras	20, 627, 800	1, 497, 000	7. 25
Bengal and Burmah	166, 058, 700	10, 852, 000	6. 49
Straits Settlements	20, 029, 900	1, 477, 000	7. 37
Ceylon	6, 749, 000	486, 000	7. 20
Hong-Kong	10, 894, 100	991, 000	9. 09
Australia	33, 790, 800	3, 431, 000	10. 15
British North America	28, 207, 400	2, 357, 000	8. 35
British West Indies and Guiana	25, 067, 000	1, 735, 000	6. 72
Other countries	7, 195, 300	515, 000	7. 16
Total	1, 416, 348, 200	108, 757, 000	7. 68

4.—EXPORTS OF COTTON PIECE GOODS—MIXED MATERIALS, COTTON PREDOMINATING.

	Yards.	*Dollars.*	*Per yard.*
Germany	153, 700	24, 000	15. 58
Holland	1, 360, 800	146, 000	10. 73
Belgium	247, 900	39, 000	15. 72
France	144, 500	24, 000	16. 55
Spain	167, 700	19, 000	11. 31
Turkey	267, 800	43, 000	16. 05
Java	664, 800	135, 000	20. 30
Philippine Islands	189, 800	29, 000	15. 26
China	65, 400	19, 000	28. 77
Japan	330, 800	58, 000	17. 53
United States	964, 000	160, 000	16. 60
Foreign West Indies	1, 919, 900	209, 000	10. 88
Mexico	943, 400	122, 000	12. 73
Brazil	2, 635, 600	311, 000	11. 79
Uruguay	1, 026, 500	112, 000	10. 90
Argentine Republic	1, 858, 500	248, 000	13. 34
British South Africa	672, 000	102, 000	15. 18
British India	634, 300	97, 000	15. 30
Straits Settlements	158, 700	19, 000	11. 95
Australia	1, 990, 600	267, 000	13. 41
British North America	2, 001, 800	209, 000	10. 44
British West Indies and Guiana	621, 400	92, 000	14. 81
Other countries	1, 311, 000	167, 000	12. 74
Total	20, 330, 900	2, 651, 000	13. 04

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

5.—EXPORTS OF LACE AND PATENT NET GOODS.

Whither.	Value.	Whither.	Value.
To Russia	$97,000	To Central America	$14,000
Sweden and Norway	49,000	United States of Colombia	34,000
Denmark	48,000	Brazil	136,000
Germany	1,045,000	Uruguay	24,000
Holland	195,000	Argentine Republic	39,000
Belgium	670,000	Gibraltar	10,000
France	709,000	British India	48,000
Spain	233,000	Australia	433,000
Italy	213,000	Canada	228,000
Turkey	53,000	British West Indies and Guiana	19,000
Egypt	29,000	All other countries	190,000
United States	5,025,000		
West Indies (not British)	34,000	Total	9,594,000
Mexico	19,000		

6.—EXPORTS OF STOCKINGS AND SOCKS.

Whither exported.	Quantity.	Value.
	Dozen pairs.	*Dollars.*
United States	211,542	501,000
Chili	52,720	39,000
Brazil	53,811	39,000
Argentine Republic	57,707	58,000
South Africa (British)	65,575	112,000
British India	86,218	92,000
Australia	523,540	826,000
British North America	59,267	97,000
British West Indies and Guiana	35,921	53,000
Other countries	101,557	136,000
Total	1,227,858	1,953,000

7.—EXPORTS OF HOSIERY, OTHER THAN STOCKINGS AND SOCKS.

Whither exported.	Value.	Whither exported.	Value.
Denmark	$15,000	Chili	$78,000
Germany	170,000	Brazil	122,000
Holland	15,000	Uruguay	44,000
Belgium	34,000	Argentine Republic	73,000
Italy	19,000	South Africa (British)	24,000
Turkey	53,000	British India	112,000
Egypt	29,000	Straits Settlements	19,000
China	19,000	Australia	87,000
United States	1,055,000	British North America	340,000
Foreign West Indies	39,000	British West Indies and Guiana	43,000
Central America	15,000	Other countries	178,000
United States of Colombia	29,000		
Ecuador	19,000	Total	2,631,000

8.—EXPORTS OF SEWING THREAD.

Whither exported.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	*Dollars.*
Russia	829,700	763,000
Sweden and Norway	542,900	471,000
Denmark	145,300	141,000
Germany	1,356,600	1,215,000
Holland	646,400	437,000
Belgium	277,300	243,000
France	171,600	151,000
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	255,700	160,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

8.—EXPORTS OF SEWING THREAD—Continued.

Whither exported.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	*Dollars.*
Spain and Canaries	388, 700	335, 000
Italy	146, 000	92, 000
Turkey	164, 800	92, 000
Java	164, 800	102, 000
United States	2, 497, 600	2, 133, 000
West Indies (foreign)	310, 300	204, 000
Mexico	379, 100	253, 000
Central America	130, 900	92, 000
United States of Colombia	168, 400	87, 000
Venezuela	113, 100	73, 000
Chili	273, 500	160, 000
Brazil	971, 700	807, 000
Uruguay	181, 600	180, 000
Argentine Republic	266, 400	248, 000
British India	794, 600	413, 000
Straits Settlements	181, 500	97, 000
Australia	319, 900	253, 000
British North America	510, 100	403, 000
British West Indies and Guiana	126, 100	97, 000
Other countries	665, 500	372, 000
Total	13, 075, 100	10, 074, 000

9.—EXPORTS OF ALL OTHER COTTON MANUFACTURES.

Whither.	Value.	Whither.	Value.
To Russia	$185, 000	To Central America	$24, 000
Sweden and Norway	107, 000	United States of Colombia	92, 000
Germany	301, 000	Chili	97, 000
Holland	170, 000	Brazil	126, 000
Belgium	233, 000	Uruguay	29, 000
France	252, 000	Argentine Republic	87, 000
Portugal	34, 000	South Africa (British)	486, 000
Spain and Canaries	38, 000	British India	360, 000
Italy	53, 000	Straits Settlements	98, 000
Turkey	78, 000	Ceylon	24, 000
Algeria	29, 000	Hong-Kong	83, 000
Eastern Africa (native states)	199, 000	Australia	510, 000
Java	29, 000	Canada	117, 000
China	78, 000	British West Indies and Guiana	68, 000
Japan	24, 000	All other countries	206, 000
United States	447, 000		
West Indies (not British)	122, 000	Total	4, 821, 000
Mexico	34, 000		

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, BY ARTICLES, TO EACH COUNTRY AND POSSESSION, BY CONTINENTS, DURING THE YEAR 1880.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AFRICA:		
To Egypt:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	2, 942, 000	$690, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	119, 849, 400	6, 736, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	24, 261, 800	1, 807, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	144, 111, 200	8, 543, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		29, 000
Lace and patent net goods		29, 000
Total to Egypt		9, 291, 000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AFRICA—Continued.		
To Algeria:		
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	8,230,500	$452,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	4,012,000	277,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	12,242,500	729,000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	29,000
Total to Algeria	.....	758,000
To Tripoli:		
Piece goods, printed	727,300	63,000
To Morocco:		
Cotton piece goods, plain	15,252,100	948,000
Cotton piece goods, printed	1,371,700	126,000
Total cotton exports to Morocco	16,623,800	1,074,000
To West Africa (foreign):		
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	7,227,500	326,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	31,148,000	1,895,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	38,375,500	2,221,000
To East Africa (native):		
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	2,635,600	141,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	2,183,900	155,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	4,819,500	296,000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	199,000
Total cotton exports to East Africa (native)	.....	495,000
West Africa (British):		
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	14,280,500	753,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	20,390,200	1,477,000
Total piece goods to British West Africa ..... do....	34,670,700	2,230,000
South Africa (British):		
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	8,459,400	673,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	15,584,100	1,511,000
Cotton piece goods, mixed, cotton predominating ..... do....	672,000	102,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	24,715,500	2,286,000
Stockings and socks ..... dozen pairs..	65,575	112,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	24,000
Total exports to South Africa (British)	.....	2,422,000
To Mauritius:		
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	5,029,900	270,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	3,936,600	267,000
Total piece goods to Mauritius ..... do....	8,966,500	537,000
Grand total to Continent of Africa	.....	19,091,000
CONTINENT OF AMERICA:		
To the United States:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	783,200	262,000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	25,377,400	2,513,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	51,584,100	5,837,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating ..... do....	964,000	160,000
Total piece goods ..... do....	77,925,500	8,510,000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	5,025,000
Stockings and socks ..... dozen pairs..	211,542	501,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	1,055,000
Sewing thread ..... pounds..	2,497,600	2,133,000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	447,000
Total exports to the United States	.....	17,933,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.		
Central America:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	549,600	$141,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	19,515,000	1,020,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	11,961,600	855,000
Total piece goods.....do....	31,476,600	1,875,000
Lace and patent net goods		14,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		15,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	130,900	92,000
All other cotton manufactures		24,000
Total cotton exports to Central America		2,161,000
Brazil:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	711,300	165,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	104,852,600	5,929,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	125,617,000	9,547,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	2,635,600	311,000
Total of piece goods.....do....	233,111,200	15,787,000
Lace and patent net goods		136,000
Stockings and socks.....dozen pairs..	53,811	39,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		122,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	971,700	807,000
All other cotton manufactures		126,000
Total cotton exports to Brazil		17,182,000
Foreign West Indies:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	30,848,000	2,211,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	44,928,900	3,363,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	1,919,900	209,000
Total piece goods.....do....	77,696,800	5,783,000
Lace and patent net goods		34,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		39,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	310,300	204,000
All other cotton manufactures		122,000
Total cotton exports to foreign West Indies		6,182,000
Mexico:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	15,012,700	909,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	19,052,100	1,375,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	943,400	122,000
Total piece goods.....do....	35,008,200	2,406,000
Lace and patent net goods		19,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	379,100	253,000
All other cotton manufactures		34,000
Total cotton exports to Mexico		2,712,000
United States of Colombia:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	20,662,900	1,196,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	25,645,900	1,725,000
Total piece goods.....do....	46,308,800	2,921,000
Lace and patent net goods		34,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		29,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	163,400	87,000
All other cotton manufactures		92,000
Total cotton exports to United States of Colombia		3,163,000
Venezuela:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	8,727,900	491,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	13,363,300	885,000
Total piece goods.....do....	22,091,200	1,376,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	113,100	73,000
Total cotton exports to Venezuela	22,204,300	1,449,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.—Continued

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.		
Ecuador:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	6,750,600	$428,000
Cotton piece goods, printed .....do....	7,568,900	573,000
Total piece goods .....do....	14,319,500	1,001,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	19,000
Total cotton exports to Ecuador	.....	1,020,000
Peru:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	3,815,900	209,000
Cotton piece goods, printed .....do....	2,765,300	209,000
Total piece goods to Peru .....do....	6,581,200	418,000
Chili:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	34,670,000	1,857,000
Cotton piece goods, printed .....do....	34,056,800	2,270,000
Total piece goods.....do....	68,726,800	4,127,000
Stockings and socks.....dozen pairs..	52,720	39,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	78,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	273,500	160,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	97,000
Total exports to Chili.....	69,053,000	4,501,000
Uruguay:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	19,528,600	1,205,000
Cotton piece goods, printed .....do....	18,441,200	1,487,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating .....do....	1,026,500	112,000
Total piece goods .....do....	38,996,300	2,804,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	24,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	44,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	181,600	180,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	29,000
Total cotton exports to Uruguay	.....	3,081,000
Argentine Republic:		
Cotton piece goods, plain .....yards.	29,163,400	1,837,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do...	30,652,400	2,226,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	1,858,500	248,000
Total piece goods .....do....	61,674,300	4,311,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	39,000
Stockings and socks.....dozen pairs..	57,707	58,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	73,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	266,400	248,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	87,000
Total cotton exports to Argentine Republic	.....	4,816,000
British North America:		
Cotton piece goods, plain .....yards..	6,631,900	453,000
Cotton piece goods, printed ....do...	28,207,400	2,357,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating .....do....	2,001,800	209,000
Total piece goods.....	36,841,100	3,019,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	228,000
Stockings and socks..... dozen pairs..	59,267	97,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	340,000
Sewing thread .....pounds..	510,100	403,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	117,000
Total cotton exports to British North America	.....	4,204,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &C.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.		
British West Indies and Guiana:		
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	20, 803, 400	$1, 293, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do ...	25, 067, 000	1, 735, 000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating ..... do....	621, 400	92, 000
Total piece cotton goods ..... do ..	46, 491, 800	3, 120, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	19, 000
Stockings and socks ..... dozen pairs..	35, 921	53, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	43, 000
Sewing thread ..... pounds..	126, 100	97, 000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	68, 000
Total cotton exports to British West Indies and Guiana	.....	3, 400, 000
(For Australasia, see the fourth series of tables.)		
CONTINENT OF ASIA:		
To Persia:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	322, 100	78, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	8, 413, 700	559, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	1, 787, 500	170, 000
Total piece goods to Persia ..... do....	10, 201, 200	729, 000
Total exports to Persia ..... do....	10, 523, 300	807, 000
To Dutch India:		
Cotton twist and yarns ..... pounds..	999, 200	345, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	39, 053, 500	2, 697, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	37, 279, 600	2, 590, 000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating ..... do....	664, 800	135, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	76, 997, 900	5, 422, 000
Sewing thread ..... pounds..	164, 800	102, 000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	29, 000
Total exports to Dutch India	.....	5, 898, 000
To Philippine Islands:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	322, 100	78, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	28, 383, 600	1, 764, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	22, 863, 500	1, 648, 000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating ..... do....	189, 800	29, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	51, 436, 900	3, 441, 000
Total exports to Philippine Islands	.....	3, 519, 000
To China:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	2, 731, 300	588, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	258, 834, 100	13, 618, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	25, 501, 300	2, 333, 000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating ..... do....	65, 400	19, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	284, 400, 800	15, 970, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	19, 000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	78, 000
Total cotton exports to China	.....	16, 655, 000
To Japan:		
Cotton twist and yarns ..... pounds..	26, 912, 200	5, 497, 060
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	35, 501, 300	1, 925, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do....	25, 539, 300	2, 280, 000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating ..... do....	330, 800	58, 000
Total piece goods ..... do....	61, 371, 400	4, 263, 000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	24, 000
Total exports to Japan	.....	9, 784, 000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF ASIA—Continued.		
British India:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	44, 097, 700	$13, 772, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	1, 361, 256, 000	67, 004, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	308, 405, 700	20, 587, 000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	634, 300	97, 000
Total piece goods.....do....	1, 670, 296, 000	87, 688, 000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	48, 000
Stockings and socks.....dozen pairs..	86, 218	92, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	112, 000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	794, 600	413, 000
All other manufactures, cotton.....	.....	360, 000
Total exports to British India.....	.....	102, 485, 000
Straits Settlements:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	2, 838, 300	802, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	95, 287, 300	4, 875, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	20, 029, 900	1, 477, 000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	158, 700	19, 000
Total of piece goods.....do....	115, 475, 900	6, 371, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	19, 000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	181, 500	97, 000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	98, 000
Total exports to Straits Settlements.....	.....	7, 387, 000
Hong-Kong:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	16, 782, 800	3, 611, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	152, 411, 300	8, 636, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	10, 894, 100	991, 000
Total piece goods.....do....	163, 305, 400	9, 627, 000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	83, 000
Total exports to Hong-Kong.....	.....	13, 321, 000
Total exports to Asia.....	.....	136, 791, 000
CONTINENT OF EUROPE:		
To Russia:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	10, 207, 700	2, 931, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	4, 479, 100	345, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	4, 865, 300	530, 000
Total cotton piece goods.....do....	9, 344, 400	875, 000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	97, 000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	829, 700	763, 000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	185, 000
Total cotton exports to Russia.....	.....	4, 851, 000
To Sweden and Norway:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	3, 867, 200	$972, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	6, 477, 300	407, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	3, 939, 100	340, 000
Total cotton piece goods.....do....	10, 416, 400	747, 000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	49, 000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	542, 900	471, 000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	107, 000
Total cotton exports to Sweden and Norway.....	.....	2, 346, 000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.		
To Denmark:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	3,680,600	$802,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	7,351,700	525,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	3,691,000	340,000
Total piece goods.....do....	11,042,700	865,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	48,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	15,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	145,300	141,000
Total cotton exports to Denmark.....	.....	1,871,000
To Germany:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	28,520,700	8,136,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	21,492,400	1,750,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	21,759,700	2,007,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	153,700	24,000
Total piece goods.....do....	43,405,800	3,781,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	1,045,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	170,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	1,356,600	1,215,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	301,000
Total cotton exports to Germany.....	.....	14,648,000
To Holland:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	30,640,900	8,257,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	19,686,300	1,337,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	22,330,000	1,968,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	1,360,800	146,000
Total piece goods.....do....	43,377,100	3,451,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	195,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	15,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	646,400	437,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	170,000
Total cotton exports to Holland.....	.....	12,525,000
To Belgium:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	5,861,900	2,057,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	17,293,900	1,409,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	5,764,800	588,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	247,900	39,000
Total piece goods.....do....	23,306,600	2,036,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	670,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	34,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	277,300	243,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	293,000
Total cotton exports to Belgium.....	.....	5,273,000
To France:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	4,954,500	2,143,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	22,773,300	1,803,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	33,412,600	3,533,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	144,500	24,000
Total piece goods.....	56,330,400	5,360,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	709,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	171,600	151,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	252,000
Total cotton exports to France.....	.....	8,615,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.		
To Spain:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	178,000	$92,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	7,073,400	607,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	10,303,100	957,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	167,700	19,000
Total piece goods.....do....	17,544,200	1,583,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	233,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	388,700	335,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	38,000
Total cotton exports to Spain.....	.....	2,281,000
To Italy:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	10,530,300	2,411,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	30,216,400	1,759,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	30,357,900	2,517,000
Total piece goods.....do....	60,574,300	4,276,000
Lace and patent net goods.....	.....	213,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks.....	.....	19,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	146,000	92,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	53,000
Total cotton exports to Italy.....	.....	7,064,000
To Portugal, Azores, and Madeira:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	59,641,000	3,203,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	9,898,200	753,000
Total piece goods.....do....	69,539,200	3,956,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	255,700	160,000
All other cotton manufactures.....	.....	34,000
Total cotton exports to Portugal, Azores, and Madeira.....	.....	4,150,000
To Austria-Hungary:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	1,985,300	452,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	3,571,000	209,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	2,134,400	175,000
Total piece goods.....do....	5,705,400	384,000
Total cotton exports to Austria Hungary.....	.....	836,000
To Greece:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	906,500	199,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	20,510,200	1,186,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	13,239,600	1,123,000
Total piece goods to Greece.....do....	33,749,800	2,309,000
Total cotton exports to Greece.....	.....	2,508,000
To Roumania:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	2,385,300	476,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	14,047,300	841,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	29,231,500	1,895,000
Total piece goods.....do....	43,278,800	2,736,000
Total cotton exports to Roumania.....	.....	3,212,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

SECOND SERIES: EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON MANUFACTURES, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.		
To Turkey:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	9,341,400	$2,168,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	223,107,600	13,846,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	160,606,900	12,004,000
Mixed goods, cotton predominating.....do....	267,800	43,000
Total piece goods.....do....	383,982,300	25,893,000
Lace and patent net goods		53,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		53,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	164,800	92,000
All other cotton manufactures		78,000
Total cotton exports to Turkey		28,337,000
To Malta:		
Cotton twist and yarn.....pounds..	529,800	107,000
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	16,130,100	923,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	12,884,400	763,000
Total piece goods.....do....	29,014,500	1,686,000
Total cotton exports to Malta		1,793,000
To Gibraltar:		
Cotton piece goods, plain.....yards..	15,811,200	833,000
Cotton piece goods, printed.....do....	9,376,600	721,000
Total piece goods.....do....	25,187,800	1,567,000
Lace and patent net goods		10,000
Total cotton exports to Gibraltar		1,577,000
Grand total of cotton exports to countries in Europe		100,436,000

THIRD SERIES: TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS TO EACH COUNTRY BY CONTINENTS.

	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AFRICA.		
Cotton twist and yarn:		
To Egypt.....pounds..	2,942,000	$690,000
Cotton piece goods, plain:		
To Egypt.....yards..	119,849,400	6,736,000
Algeria.....do....	8,230,500	452,000
Morocco.....do....	15,252,100	948,000
West Africa (foreign).....do....	7,227,500	326,000
East Africa (native).....do....	2,635,600	141,000
West Africa (British).....do....	14,280,500	753,000
South Africa (British).....do....	8,459,400	673,000
Mauritius.....do....	5,029,900	270,000
Total.....do....	180,964,900	10,299,000
Cotton piece goods, printed:		
To Egypt.....yards..	24,261,800	1,807,000
Tripoli.....do....	727,300	63,000
Algeria.....do....	4,012,000	277,000
Morocco.....do....	1,371,700	126,000
West Africa (foreign).....do....	31,148,000	1,895,000
East Africa (native).....do....	2,183,900	155,000
British West Africa.....do....	20,390,200	1,477,000
British South Africa.....do....	15,584,100	1,511,000
Mauritius.....do....	3,936,600	267,000
Total.....do..	103,615,600	7,578,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

THIRD SERIES: TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AFRICA—Continued.		
Cotton piece goods mixed, cotton predominating:		
British South Africa ..... yards..	672,000	$102,000
Grand total of piece goods:		
To Egypt ..... yards..	144,111,200	8,543,000
Algeria ..... do...	12,242,500	729,000
Morocco ..... do...	16,623,800	1,074,000
West Africa (foreign) ..... do...	38,375,500	2,221,000
East Africa (native) ..... do...	4,819,500	296,000
British West Africa ..... do...	34,670,700	2,230,000
British South Africa ..... do...	24,715,500	2,286,000
Mauritius ..... do...	8,966,500	537,000
Tripoli ..... do...	727,300	63,000
Total piece goods to Africa	285,252,500	17,979,000
Lace and patent net goods:		
To Egypt	.....	29,000
Stockings and socks:		
To South Africa (British) ..... dozen pairs..	65,575	112,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks:		
To South Africa (British)	.....	24,000
Egypt	.....	29,000
Total	.....	53,000
Sewing-thread	Nil.	
All other cotton manufactures:		
To East Africa (native)	.....	199,000
Algeria	.....	29,000
Total other manufactures	.....	228,000
Grand total to the continent of Africa	.....	19,091,000
CONTINENT OF AMERICA.		
Cotton yarn and twist:		
To the United States ..... pounds..	783,200	$262,000
Central America ..... do...	549,600	141,000
Brazil ..... do...	711,300	165,000
Total ..... do...	2,044,100	568,000
Cotton piece goods, plain:		
To the United States ..... yards..	25,377,400	2,513,000
Foreign West Indies ..... do...	30,848,000	2,211,000
Mexico ..... do...	15,012,700	909,000
Central America ..... do...	19,515,000	1,020,000
The United States of Columbia ..... do...	20,662,900	1,196,000
Venezuela ..... do...	8,727,900	491,000
Ecuador ..... do...	6,750,600	428,000
Peru ..... do...	3,815,900	209,000
Chili ..... do...	34,670,000	1,857,000
Brazil ..... do...	104,858,600	5,929,000
Uruguay ..... do...	19,528,600	1,205,000
Argentine Republic ..... do...	29,163,400	1,837,000
British North America ..... do...	6,631,900	453,000
British West Indies and Guiana ..... do...	20,803,400	1,293,000
Total cotton piece goods, plain ..... do...	346,366,300	21,551,000
Cotton piece goods, printed:		
To the United States ..... yards..	51,584,100	5,837,000
Foreign West Indies ..... do...	44,928,900	3,363,000
Mexico ..... do...	19,052,100	1,375,000
Central America ..... do...	11,961,600	855,000
United States of Colombia ..... do...	25,645,900	1,725,000
Venezuela ..... do...	13,363,300	885,000
Ecuador ..... do...	7,568,900	573,000
Peru ..... do...	2,765,300	209,000
Chili ..... do...	34,056,800	2,270,000
Brazil ..... do...	125,617,000	9,547,000
Uruguay ..... do...	18,441,200	1,487,000
Argentine Republic ..... do...	30,652,400	2,226,000
British North America ..... do...	28,207,400	2,357,000
British West Indies and Guiana ..... do...	25,067,000	1,735,000
Total cotton piece goods, printed ..... do...	438,911,900	34,444,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

THIRD SERIES: TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.		
Cotton piece goods mixed, cotton predominating:		
To the United States ..... yards..	964,000	$160,000
Foreign West Indies ..... do...	1,919,900	209,000
Mexico ..... do...	943,400	122,000
Brazil ..... do...	2,635,600	311,000
Uruguay ..... do...	1,026,500	112,000
Argentine Republic ..... do...	1,858,500	248,000
British North America ..... do...	2,001,800	209,000
British West Indies and Guiana ..... do...	621,400	92,000
Total cotton piece goods, mixed ..... do...	11,971,100	1,463,000
Grand total of piece goods:		
To the United States ..... yards..	77,925,500	8,510,000
Foreign West Indies ..... do...	77,696,800	5,783,000
Mexico ..... do...	35,008,200	2,406,000
Central America ..... do...	31,476,600	1,875,000
The United States of Colombia ..... do...	46,308,800	2,921,000
Venezuela ..... do...	22,091,200	1,376,000
Ecuador ..... do...	14,319,500	1,001,000
Peru ..... do...	6,581,200	418,000
Chili ..... do...	68,726,800	4,127,000
Brazil ..... do...	233,111,200	15,787,000
Uruguay ..... do...	38,996,300	2,804,000
Argentine Republic ..... do...	61,674,300	4,311,000
British North America ..... do...	36,841,100	2,019,000
British West Indies and Guiana ..... do...	46,491,800	3,120,000
Grand total of piece goods	797,249,700	57,458,000
Lace and patent net goods:		
To the United States	.....	5,025,000
Foreign West Indies	.....	34,000
Mexico	.....	19,000
Central America	.....	14,000
United States of Colombia	.....	34,000
Brazil	.....	136,000
Uruguay	.....	24,000
Argentine Republic	.....	39,000
British North America	.....	228,000
British West Indies and Guiana	.....	19,000
Total lace and patent net goods	.....	5,572,000
Stockings and socks:		
To the United States ..... dozen pairs..	211,542	501,000
Chili ..... do...	52,720	39,000
Brazil ..... do...	53,811	39,000
Argentine Republic ..... do...	57,707	58,000
British North America ..... do...	59,267	97,000
British West Indies and Guiana ..... do...	35,921	53,000
Total stockings and socks	470,968	787,000
Exports of hosiery, other than stockings and socks:		
To the United States	.....	1,055,000
Foreign West Indies	.....	39,000
Central America	.....	15,000
United States of Colombia	.....	29,000
Ecuador	.....	19,000
Chili	.....	78,000
Brazil	.....	122,000
Uruguay	.....	44,000
Argentine Republic	.....	73,000
British North America	.....	340,000
British West Indies and Guiana	.....	43,000
Total of hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	1,857,000
Sewing-thread:		
To the United States ..... pounds..	2,497,600	2,133,000
Foreign West Indies ..... do...	310,300	204,000
Mexico ..... do...	379,100	253,000
Central America ..... do...	130,900	92,000
United States of Colombia ..... do...	163,400	87,000
Venezuela ..... do...	113,100	73,000
Chili ..... do...	273,500	160,000
Brazil ..... do...	971,700	807,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

THIRD SERIES: TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.		
Sewing-thread:		
To Uruguay.....pounds..	$181,600	$180,000
Argentine Republic.....do....	266,400	248,000
British North America.....do....	510,100	402,000
British West Indies and Guiana.....do....	126,100	97,000
Total sewing-thread.....do ...	5,923,800	4,737,000
All other cotton manufactures:		
To the United States.....	.....	447,000
Foreign West Indies.....	.....	122,000
Mexico.....	.....	34,000
Central America.....	.....	24,000
United States of Colombia.....	.....	92,000
Chili.....	.....	97,000
Brazil.....	.....	126,000
Uruguay.....	.....	29,000
Argentine Republic.....	.....	87,000
British North America.....	.....	117,000
British West Indies and Guiana.....	.....	68,000
Total.....	.....	1,243,000
Grand total to the continent of America.....	.....	69,588,000
CONTINENT OF ASIA.		
Cotton twist and yarn:		
To Persia.....pounds..	322,100	$78,000
Dutch India.....do....	999,200	345,000
Philippine Islands.....do...	1,241,400	379,000
China.....do....	2,731,300	588,000
Japan.....do....	26,912,200	5,497,000
British India:		
Bombay and Scinde.....do....	12,450,800	3,650,000
Madras.....do....	12,089,400	3,567,000
Bengal and Burmah.....do....	19,557,500	6,555,000
Straits Settlements.....do....	2,838,300	802,000
Hong-Kong.....do....	16,782,800	3,611,000
Total cotton yarn and twist.....do ...	95,925,000	25,072,000
Cotton piece goods, plain:		
To Persia.....yards..	8,413,700	559,000
Dutch India.....do ...	39,053,500	2,697,000
Philippine Islands.....do....	28,383,600	1,764,000
China.....do ...	258,834,100	13,618,000
Japan.....do ...	35,501,300	1,925,000
British India:		
Bombay and Scinde.....do....	429,559,200	20,786,000
Madras.....do....	56,307,000	3,008,000
Bengal and Burmah.....do....	875,389,800	43,210,000
Straits Settlements.....do....	95,287,300	4,875,000
Ceylon.....do....	20,171,100	1,196,000
Hong-Kong.....do....	152,411,300	8,636,000
Total piece goods, plain.....do....	1,969,311,900	102,274,000
Cotton piece goods, printed:		
To Persia.....yards..	1,787,500	170,000
Dutch India.....do....	37,279,600	2,590,000
Philippine Islands.....do....	22,863,500	1,648,000
China.....do ...	25,501,300	2,333,000
Japan.....do....	25,539,300	2,280,000
British India:		
Bombay and Scinde.....do....	121,719,200	8,238,000
Madras.....do....	20,627,800	1,497,000
Bengal and Burmah.....do....	166,058,700	10,852,000
Straits Settlements.....do....	29,029,900	1,477,000
Ceylon.....do....	6,749,000	486,000
Hong-Kong.....do....	10,894,100	991,000
Total piece goods, printed.....do....	459,049,900	32,562,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

THIRD SERIES: TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF ASIA—Continued.		
Mixed goods, cotton predominating:		
To British India ..... yards	634, 300	$97, 000
Straits Settlements ..... do	158, 700	19, 000
Dutch India ..... do	664, 800	135, 000
Philippine Islands ..... do	189, 800	29, 000
China ..... do	65, 400	19, 000
Japan ..... do	330, 800	58, 000
Total mixed goods ..... do	2, 043, 800	357, 000
Grand total of piece goods:		
To Persia ..... yards	10, 201, 200	729, 000
Dutch India ..... do	76, 997, 900	5, 422, 000
Philippine Islands ..... do	51, 436, 900	3, 441, 000
China ..... do	284, 400, 800	15, 970, 000
Japan ..... do	61, 371, 400	4, 263, 000
British India ..... do	1, 670, 296, 000	87, 688, 000
Straits Settlements ..... do	115, 475, 900	6, 371, 000
Ceylon ..... do	26, 920, 100	1, 682, 000
Hong-Kong ..... do	163, 305, 400	9, 627, 000
Grand total of piece goods ..... do	2, 460, 405, 600	135, 193, 000
Lace and patent net goods:		
To British India	.....	48, 000
Stockings and socks:		
To British India ..... dozen pairs	86, 218	92, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks:		
To China	.....	19, 000
British India	.....	112, 000
Straits Settlements	.....	19, 000
		150, 000
Sewing thread:		
To Dutch India ..... pounds	164, 800	102, 000
British India ..... do	794, 600	413, 000
Straits Settlements ..... do	181, 500	97, 000
	1, 140, 900	612, 000
All other cotton manufactures:		
To Dutch India	.....	29, 000
China	.....	78, 000
Japan	.....	24, 000
British India	.....	360, 000
Straits Settlements	.....	98, 000
Ceylon	.....	24, 000
Hong-Kong	.....	83, 000
		696, 000
Total to the continent of Asia	.....	136, 791, 000
(For Australasia, see fourth series of tables.)		
CONTINENT OF EUROPE.		
Cotton twist and yarn:		
To Russia ..... pounds	10, 207, 700	2, 931, 000
Sweden and Norway ..... do	3, 867, 200	972, 000
Denmark ..... do	3, 680, 600	802, 000
Germany ..... do	28, 520, 700	8, 136, 000
Holland ..... do	30, 640, 900	8, 257, 000
Belgium ..... do	5, 861, 800	2, 057, 000
France ..... do	4, 954, 500	2, 143, 000
Spain ..... do	178, 000	92, 000
Italy ..... do	10, 530, 300	2, 411, 000
Austria-Hungary ..... do	1, 985, 300	452, 000
Greece ..... do	906, 500	199, 000
Roumania ..... do	2, 385, 300	476, 000
Turkey ..... do	9, 341, 400	2, 168, 000
Malta ..... do	529, 800	107, 000
Total twist and yarn ..... do	113, 590, 100	31, 203, 000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

THIRD SERIES: TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.		
Cotton piece goods, plain:		
To Russia ..... yards..	4,479,100	$345,000
Sweden and Norway ..... do....	6,477,300	407,000
Denmark ..... do....	7,351,700	525,000
Germany ..... do....	21,492,400	1,750,000
Holland ..... do....	19,686,300	1,337,000
Belgium ..... do....	17,293,900	1,409,000
France ..... do....	22,773,300	1,803,000
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira ..... do ..	59,641,000	3,203,000
Spain and Canaries ..... do....	7,073,400	607,000
Italy ..... do ..	30,216,400	1,759,000
Austria-Hungary ..... do....	3,571,000	209,000
Greece ..... do....	20,510,200	1,186,000
Roumania ..... do....	14,047,300	841,000
Turkey ..... do....	223,107,600	13,846,000
Gibraltar ..... do....	15,811,200	838,000
Malta ..... do....	16,130,100	923,000
Total piece goods, plain ..... do....	489,662,200	30,988,000
Cotton piece goods, printed:		
To Russia ..... yards..	4,865,300	530,000
Sweden and Norway ..... do....	3,939,100	340,000
Denmark ..... do....	3,691,000	340,000
Germany ..... do....	21,759,700	2,007,000
Holland ..... do....	22,330,000	1,968,000
Belgium ..... do....	5,764,800	588,000
France ..... do....	33,412,600	3,533,000
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira ..... do....	9,898,200	753,000
Spain and Canaries ..... do....	10,303,100	957,000
Italy ..... do....	30,357,900	2,517,000
Austria-Hungary ..... do....	2,134,400	175,000
Greece ..... do....	13,239,600	1,123,000
Roumania ..... do....	29,231,500	1,895,000
Turkey ..... do....	160,606,900	12,004,000
Gibraltar ..... do....	9,376,600	729,000
Malta ..... do....	12,884,400	763,000
Total piece goods, printed ..... do....	373,795,100	30,222,000
Cotton piece goods, mixed, cotton predominating:		
To Germany ..... yards...	153,700	24,000
Holland ..... do....	1,360,800	146,000
Belgium ..... do....	247,900	39,000
France ..... do....	144,500	24,000
Spain ..... do....	167,700	19,000
Turkey ..... do....	267,800	43,000
Total mixed goods ..... do....	2,342,400	295,000
Grand total of piece goods:		
To Russia ..... yards..	9,344,400	875,000
Sweden and Norway ..... do....	10,416,400	747,000
Denmark ..... do....	11,042,700	865,000
Germany ..... do....	43,405,800	3,781,000
Holland ..... do....	43,377,100	3,451,000
Belgium ..... do....	23,306,600	2,036,000
France ..... do....	56,330,400	5,360,000
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira ..... do....	69,539,200	3,956,000
Spain and Canaries ..... do....	17,544,200	1,583,000
Italy ..... do....	60,574,300	4,276,000
Austria-Hungary ..... do....	5,705,400	384,000
Greece ..... do....	33,749,800	2,309,000
Roumania ..... do....	43,278,800	2,736,000
Turkey ..... do....	383,982,300	25,893,000
Gibraltar ..... do....	25,187,800	1,567,000
Malta ..... do....	29,014,500	1,686,000
Grand total piece goods ..... do...	865,799,700	61,505,000
Lace and patent net goods:		
To Russia	.....	97,000
Norway and Sweden	.....	49,000
Denmark	.....	48,000
Germany	.....	1,045,000
Holland	.....	195,000
Belgium	.....	670,000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

THIRD SERIES: TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.		
Lace and patent net goods:		
France		$709, 000
Spain		233, 000
Italy		213, 000
Turkey		53, 000
Gibraltar		10, 000
Total		3, 322, 000
Stockings and socks		Nil.
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks:		
To Denmark		15, 000
Germany		170, 000
Holland		15, 000
Belgium		34, 000
Italy		19, 000
Turkey		53, 000
Total hosiery		306, 000
Sewing thread:		
To Russia ..... pounds	829, 700	763, 000
Sweden and Norway ..... do	542, 900	471, 000
Denmark ..... do	145, 300	141, 000
Germany ..... do	1, 356, 600	1, 215, 000
Holland ..... do	646, 400	437, 000
Belgium ..... do	277, 300	243, 000
France ..... do	171, 600	151, 000
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira ..... do	255, 700	160, 000
Spain and Canaries ..... do	388, 700	335, 000
Italy ..... do	146, 000	92, 000
Turkey ..... do	164, 800	92, 000
Total sewing thread ..... do	4, 925, 000	4, 100, 000
All other cotton manufactures:		
To Russia		185, 000
Sweden and Norway		107, 000
Germany		301, 000
Holland		170, 000
Belgium		233, 000
France		252, 000
Portugal		34, 000
Spain and Canaries		38, 000
Italy		53, 000
Turkey		78, 000
Total		1, 451, 000
Grand total of exports to countries in Europe		100, 436, 000

FOURTH SERIES:—TOTAL QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF THE SEVERAL SORTS OF GOODS EXPORTED TO EACH CONTINENT.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AFRICA:		
Cotton twist and yarn (to Egypt) ..... pounds	2, 942, 000	$690, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards	180, 964, 900	10, 299, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do	103, 615, 600	7, 578, 000
Piece goods, mixed, cotton predominating ..... do	672, 000	102, 000
Total piece goods ..... do	285, 252, 500	17, 979, 000
Lace and patent net goods (to Egypt)		29, 000
Stockings and socks ..... pairs	65, 575	112, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		53, 000
Sewing thread	Nil.	
All other cotton manufactures		228, 000
Total exports to Africa		19, 091, 000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

FOURTH SERIES: TOTAL QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF THE SEVERAL SORTS OF GOODS EXPORTED, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
CONTINENT OF AMERICA:		
Cotton yarn and twist ..... pounds..	2, 044, 100	$568, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards .	346, 366, 300	21, 551, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do	438, 911, 900	34, 444, 000
Piece goods, mixed, cotton predominating ..... do	11, 971, 100	1, 463, 000
Total piece goods ..... do	797, 249, 300	57, 458, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	5, 572, 000
Stockings and socks	.....	787, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	1, 857, 000
Sewing thread	.....	4, 737, 000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	1, 243, 000
Total	.....	14, 196, 000
Total exports to America	.....	72, 222, 000
CONTINENT OF ASIA:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	93, 925, 000	25, 072, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	1, 999, 311, 900	102, 274, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do	459, 049, 900	32, 562, 000
Piece goods, mixed, cotton predominating ..... do	2, 043, 800	357, 000
Total piece goods ..... do	2, 460, 405, 600	135, 193, 000
Lace and patent net goods (to British India)	.....	48, 000
Stockings and socks ..... doz. pairs..	86, 218	92, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	150, 000
Sewing thread ..... pounds..	1, 140, 900	612, 000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	696, 000
Total exports to Asia	.....	136, 791, 000
AUSTRALASIA:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	Nil.	
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	29, 892, 500	2, 867, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do	33, 790, 800	3, 431, 000
Piece goods, mixed, cotton predominating ..... do	1, 990, 600	267, 000
Total piece goods	65, 673, 900	6, 565, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	433, 000
Stockings and socks ..... doz. pairs..	523, 540	826, 000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	87, 000
Sewing thread ..... pounds .	319, 900	253, 000
All other other cotton manufactures	.....	510, 000
Total exports to Australasia	.....	8, 674, 000
CONTINENT OF EUROPE:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	113, 590, 100	31, 203, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	489, 662, 200	30, 988, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do	373, 795, 100	30, 222, 000
Cotton piece goods, mixed, cotton predominating ..... do	2, 342, 400	295, 000
Total piece goods ..... do	865, 799, 700	61, 505, 000
Lace and patent net goods	.....	3, 322, 000
Stockings and socks	Nil.	
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks	.....	306, 000
Sewing thread ..... pounds..	4, 925, 000	4, 100, 000
All other cotton manufactures	.....	1, 451, 000
Total exports to Europe	.....	100, 436, 000
EXPORTS TO COUNTRIES NOT DESIGNATED:		
Cotton twist and yarn ..... pounds..	1, 043, 600	311, 000
Cotton piece goods, plain ..... yards..	11, 768, 100	324, 000
Cotton piece goods, printed ..... do	7, 195, 300	515, 000
Mixed piece goods, cotton predominating ..... do	1, 311, 000	167, 000
Total piece goods ..... do	20, 274, 400	1, 006, 000

Statement showing the cotton-goods trade of England, &c.—Continued.

FOURTH SERIES: TOTAL QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF THE SEVERAL SORTS OF GOODS EXPORTED, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
EXPORTS TO COUNTRIES NOT DESIGNATED:		
Lace and patent net goods		$190,000
Stockings and socks.....doz. pairs..	101,557	136,000
Hosiery, other than stockings and socks		178,000
Sewing thread.....pounds..	665,500	372,000
All other cotton manufactures		206,000
Total		2,399,000

THE COTTON MANUFACTURES OF LANCASHIRE.

REPORT BY CONSUL SHAW, OF MANCHESTER.

The official statistics show that out of 2,674 cotton factories in Great Britain, 1,976 are located in Lancashire. This overwhelming preponderance proves that there are peculiar and controlling conditions which render this part of England specially favorable for the manufacture of cotton.

A somewhat careful study of this subject under very favorable circumstances enables me to furnish some facts in this connection which may be of interest and value to American manufacturers and others. There are several reasons why Lancashire has been selected as the center of the cotton manufactures of the kingdom, and I shall name them in their order:

First. The climate in Lancashire is specially adapted for manufacturing various kinds of textile fabrics, and particularly in the finer grades of cotton. The humidity of the atmosphere enables manufacturers to spin and weave at great advantage. In the finer grades it is almost impossible to spin yarn economically without a humid atmosphere, because without a certain needed dampness the cotton frequently breaks, rendering its working slow and expensive. Besides, the "breaks" in the yarn lead to "faults" in the woven cloth, and these depreciate the value of the output.

This is a most important natural climatic advantage, and so well is it now understood in this country that cotton mills which could not be profitably worked in other parts of England removed to Lancashire have proved profitable. Nor is this advantage in spinning finer yarns confined to the finer grades, for *all* grades are more or less affected by the atmospheric conditions.

Several attempts have been made here to introduce artificial moisture into mills erected in localities where the humidity of the atmosphere is not as favorable for the manufacture of cotton as it is in Lancashire. Thus far all experiments have proved failures, and chiefly for two reasons: First, the artificial moisture was found to cause the machinery to rust, and, consequently, this required that great care should be exercised to keep it in order; and, second, the clothing of the operatives became moist, and this led to much sickness, chiefly from rheumatic complaints. Moreover it was ascertained that artificial moisture, for some reason, did not have the same effect upon the cotton as the naturally humid atmosphere of Lancashire does; and now there are no mills using this method, so far as I can learn, in Great Britain. I cannot do

better in this connection than to give the able letter received by me during the past year from a successful Lancashire manufacturer, in answer to an inquiry from me regarding the saving which his practical experience had taught him came from the favorable atmospheric conditions in making up cotton. * * *

In reply to your inquiry as to the data by which I arrive at the conclusion that there is in the weaving of cotton goods often a difference of about 10 per cent. between the cost of weaving in moist weather and the cost of weaving the same class of goods in weather when dry and parching east winds prevail, I beg to hand you the following: In my weaving shed we produce during moist weather on the average 5¼ pieces per loom per week of the cotton cloth which I am usually engaged in manufacturing.

You will please understand that I am not a spinner, but what is termed in Lancashire a "manufacturer"; that is, I purchase cotton yarn and manufacture the yarn into cotton cloth. In reckoning the cost of manufacturing I have to include the following items, namely: Interest at 5 per cent. upon capital invested in buildings and machinery and required for working the business; cost of steam power, allowance for depreciation of buildings and machinery, taxes, and all fixed standing wages which remain the same whether the machinery is producing less or more. Those various items add up in my shed to an average cost per loom per week of 2*s.* 2*d.*, or with an average weekly production per loom per 5¼ pieces, the cost per piece of the above-specified items is 5*d.*, while the total cost of manufacturing such cloth as I make is 2*s.* 5*d.* halfpenny per piece; that is, cost for changing the yarn into calico, unbleached, in moist, favorable weather. Now in dry weather, with continued easterly winds, and still worse if frost prevails at the same time, the production per loom per week will fall to an average of 4 pieces, while all the items of cost per loom per week (which I have already specified) remain the same as in more favorable weather; consequently the cost per piece of cloth is proportionally increased, being for these fixed expenses 6¼*d.* per piece (that is, 4 pieces per loom per week at a cost per loom per week of 2*s.* and 2*d.*), or a total cost per piece of cloth of 2*s* and 7*d.* Thus—

Moist weather.	*Dry weather, with continued east wind and frost.*
Five and one-fourth pieces per loom per week, on a fixed charge per loom of 2*s.* 2*d.*, equal to 5*d.* per piece. Total cost of manufacture, per piece, 29¼*d.* = 2*s.* 5¼*d.*	Four pieces per loom per week, on a fixed charge per loom of 2*s.* 2*d.*, equal to 6¼*d.* per piece. Total cost of manufacture per piece, 31*d.* = 2*s.* 7*d.* Increased cost, 5 per cent.

In addition to this extra cost, owing to diminished production (or "turn off," as we term it), there are two other items to be considered: The quality of the weaver's work is greatly lowered in dry weather with easterly winds and frost. In my shed we find that during such weather one piece out of every four is so much damaged by broken threads and other "weaver's faults" that it has to be sold as a "reject," which lowers its price at least 3*d.* Moreover, the weight of the cloth is considerably affected by such adverse weather, and much cotton cloth in England is sold according to weight as well as to other particulars. In such weather at least one-fourth of my production is a "light weight" and such "light" have to be sold at 3*d.* or even more below the price of "regulars" of "full weights." Of course we can avoid "lights" by weaving with coarser counts of weft, but that increases the cost proportionally. Thus in this adverse dry weather there is one piece in four faulty, at a loss of 3*d.* and one piece in four light at a loss of 3*d.*: equivalent to a loss per loom (four pieces in such weather per loom per week) of 6*d.* per week, or one penny half-penny per piece of cloth, which, added to a total cost of production of 29¼*d.* per piece, is equal to another 5 per cent. Then there is in diminished production an additional cost per piece of 5 per cent.; in faulty and light pieces a loss equal to 5 per cent. on the cost of production. Total increased cost in the process of weaving, a loss owing to dry weather with easterly winds and frosts, 10 per cent.

In conclusion, I should add that this extra cost will vary, according to coarseness or fineness of the yarns which are woven, according to light or heavy "sizings," and according to the situation of the weaving shed. This latter consideration is important; so much so, that even in ordinary weather a weaving shed placed in a damp and sheltered situation will (other things being equal) produce more and better work than a shed not so placed.

You will readily understand that dry, easterly winds, especially when combined with frost, abstract from the cotton yarn much of its natural moisture, and also (of course) the artificially-added moisture, by which abstraction the yarn is rendered brittle,

losing much of its natural tension, and becoming less capable of bearing the strain which is put upon it during the various processes of work.

You will please remember that my remarks apply only to the processes of changing cotton yarn into calico (or cloth, as we term it). I say nothing about spinning, which is not my business. I fear this letter will appear tediously long, but I concluded it was safer to be prolix than indistinct. * * *

This letter so fully and so ably considers the point in question that further comment is unnecessary in this connection, except to add that the saving in *spinning* is equally marked and great as it is in *weaving*, and from the same cause—a humid atmosphere. The remarkable nature of the moist atmosphere of Lancashire is so well known that there is no need of supplying data on this point.

Second. The clannish character of the operatives in this district somehow leads them to dislike to remove to other places. The result is that the best and most experienced become attached to old associations here and furnish skilled labor in abundance and of the best character. An English operative, as a rule, is fully satisfied if there is plenty of work to be had in the mill at fair wages, and few ever hope to get into any other way of earning a living. The children of operatives are early set to work as "half timers," attending school in the forenoon and working in the afternoon, and, as they grow up, at once take their places on "full time," fully competent to manage the machinery put under their charge. They are, in fact, really skilled and specially trained operatives, having been educated in their work in the mill where they expect to labor.

This system enables manufacturers to employ skilled operatives, and, also, of a superior, educated class, because, as "half timers," they have been carefully taught their duties before entering the mill under full pay. This plan of educating the children for their special work has been found to answer well, and one result of it is that few changes take place in operatives. To illustrate: A mill-owner assured me not long ago that he employed 2,000 operatives, and that there had not been thirty changes in his force in the past year. This remarkable fixity of labor among operatives is of great service to the manufacturers, for the reason that long experience educates a skill and deftness in working the same machinery which secures excellence and uniformity of the output—two valuable considerations. American manufacturers will recognize the importance of the two special reasons here given why cotton manufactures thrive in Lancashire; and there are other conditions peculiar to English factories which are worthy of mention in this connection.

CONSTRUCTION OF ENGLISH COTTON FACTORIES.

Keen competition and vast experience have led to great perfection in the construction of English cotton factories. The weaving sheds are built on the ground, are only one story in height, with glass roofs and stone or flag floors. Two advantages are claimed from this system of constructing these sheds:

First. An even and fine light falls upon each loom. This is not the case in mills where weaving is carried on in buildings with one story above another, inasmuch as the looms near the windows have a good light, while those placed in the center of the room are not so well lighted, owing to the floor overhead.

Second. The machinery, being placed on solid foundations, does not vibrate (or, at least or most, but little), thus securing a steady motion, and at the same time saving the machinery much "wear and tear."

These conditions are of such importance that the old system of fac-

tories with weaving rooms one above another have all been abandoned in England.

One of the most competent factory managers in Lancashire assured me recently that American manufacturers should never hope to compete with them until their mills were built after the best English models. His reasons for holding to this view were that the imperfect light supplied by factories constructed upon the old plan would not make it possible for operatives to weave as much in a day or to do as fine work as the clear and over-head light of the one-story glass-roofed shed enables them to accomplish. In addition, he contended that the vibration of machinery in the old factories was so serious in first-class work as to render it very difficult to keep the looms in perfect order, whereas under the present conditions manufacturers could rely on even work and a considerable saving in the "wear" of their plant.

When competition is becoming sharp, and small advantages, even, are very important, these facts may prove interesting to American manufacturers.

THE BEST WAY TO EXTEND THE SALE OF AMERICAN MANUFACTURES IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

The vast commerce of this part of England with nearly all the world is a subject worthy of careful study, and the lesson which it teaches is one American manufacturers and merchants would do well to examine with great care. The colossal industries which have their center in Lancashire are the outgrowth of capital and intelligence, of economical and skilled methods of production, combined with wise methods in disposing of the products of factories in foreign countries.

Two principal elements in this problem are, first, the excellent system of partnerships existing between foreign and home firms; and, second, the marvelous perfection and extent of the English banking system.

I am convinced that so long as Americans neglect to follow the plan adopted by English manufacturers and merchants of forming partnerships, wherever it is intended to make a push to introduce their manufactures, just so long will they be compelled to compete for a share of the present foreign trade at a very great disadvantage.

At present, in India, in South Africa, in China, in Japan, and, in short, in all countries where English manufactures are sold, English partnerships exist with leading foreign firms. These connections are of the utmost importance and enable English manufacturers to determine with confidence what the needs and tastes of the native markets are, because the English partner makes it his special study to master these points.

This plan increases, and, so to speak, fortifies the influence of English merchants, and aids in extending a demand for English manufactures. It has taken many years to develop this admirable system, now so useful to English manufacturers, and the wise thing for our people to do is to promptly follow the English example, and form partnerships in far-away centers, precisely as they have so successfully done heretofore.

This plan leads to a full knowledge of the financial standing of dealers—a very desirable point in trading with foreigners. It is not a question of ships that most deeply affects the consideration under review, but is simply a question of a better system of reaching the native dealers and of securing a footing among them. Foreigners, as a rule, are slow and suspicious about adopting new inventions, and in Eastern countries the prejudices of the native population are very difficult to overcome.

It is easier and wiser for manufacturers to first ascertain what will suit foreign consumers and then supply the demand, than to attempt to secure the introduction of fabrics that are unknown and unsuited to the popular notion of fitness and fashion.

The plan in England is to send out well-trained experts as partners in distant foreign houses, and through their local knowledge and influence the right sort of manufactures are furnished. It will take time and study and patience to establish such a connection for American manufacturers, but this is the proper system, beyond question, which must be adopted before our excellent manufactures can compete on anything like even terms with those of other countries already possessing this kind of trade connection.

The second point named, viz, that of the far-reaching banking facilities of England, is hardly less important than the first. Wherever English manufactures find a market on the globe, English banking ramifications extend. While commerce in this age does not necessarily "follow the flag," it does to a considerable extent follow the convenience and safety which good banking facilities provide in far-off countries.

English manufacturers owe much to the agency of these two elements, for under the splendid organizations of partnerships and banking privileges their present strong position in the great markets of the world has been secured.

American manufacturers cannot hope, and should not expect, to at once step to the front in Eastern markets under present conditions, even when they have superior manufactures to offer, owing to the prejudices and the habits of trade of the native dealers. English merchants understand this question, and have met the difficulties in the way I have briefly pointed out. With resident American partners in foreign trade centers, and American banking accommodations established, it would not be long before the demand for many lines of American manufactures would increase many fold. Of the truth of this view no one can entertain a doubt who has carefully examined the question. The frank view of a leading English merchant in India upon this point has led me to refer to it thus fully, and I believe too little attention has been given to this matter in the past by our people.

WAGES OF ENGLISH FACTORY OPERATIVES.

The following average earnings per day of operatives in this consular district have been carefully prepared, and represent fairly the wages of this great manufacturing center:

Average earnings per day in an East Lancashire cotton-weaving mill.

(Hours of labor, 56 per week.)

January 1, 1880—at present subject to a reduction of 10 per cent.	
Weavers, 3 looms	$0 64 to $0 72
Weavers, 4 looms	80 to 96
Weavers, 6 looms	1 20 to 1 44
Weavers, children (half-timers)	14
January 1, 1880—at present subject to a reduction of from 5 to 10 per cent.	
Bramers or warpers	$0 64 to $0 80
Winders	40 to 72
Tapers or sizers	1 20 to 1 68
Tacklers or overlookers	1 12 to 1 68
Engine drivers and firemen	96 to 1 68

Average earnings per day in an Oldham cotton and spinning mill.

(Hours of working, 56 per week.)

Mule overlookers	$1 60	to	$2 00
Carders	1 60	to	1 80
Strippers, jobbers, grinders (less 10 per cent.)	96		
Now working on 15 per cent. reduction on these rates:			
Drawing and slubbing hands	$0 72	to	$0 84
Intermediate and roving hands	68	to	84
Little tenders (full time)	36		
Little tenders (half time)	16		

Average earnings per day in a Blackburn cotton-spinning mill.

(Hours of working, 56 per week.)

Present rate of wages:			
Spinning masters and carders	$1 20	to	$2 00
Spinners	1 20	to	1 40
Piecers	46	to	56
Creelers	28	to	34
Rovers	58	to	66
Slubbers	50	to	60
Drawers	12	to	56
Grinders	85		
Blow-room hands	48	to	85
Engine drivers	84	to	2 00
Firemen	64	to	84

The employments represented by the lower rates of wages (say from 28 to 72 cents) are filled chiefly by women or girls and boys. In "Haworth's mill," one of the largest and finest in this district, where 2,500 operatives are employed, 70 per cent. of these are women; 40 per cent. of the women are under twenty years of age, and 10 per cent. of them are under 15. This may be taken as approximating to the general average percentage of employment, so far as sex and age are concerned.

HOUSE-RENTS OF OPERATIVES.

English operatives, as a class, know nothing of the American system of "boarding." It is the ambition of a married operative here to rent a cottage and have a home. To meet this demand mill-owners and capitalists build neat and suitable houses, small and large, to meet the special requirements of factory hands. For 66 cents per week a small brick cottage, containing a "living-room" and two bed-rooms, can be had; 81 cents per week procures one with a kitchen and parlor in addition to the former; $1 per week pays for an extra bed-room, and from $1.25 to $1.50 provides a cottage with four bed-rooms, a parlor, kitchen, and scullery. These cottages are built in rooms or blocks, and are kept clean and neat as a rule. They are subject to careful inspection by a sanitary officer, and the water and drainage accommodations must be first class.

Unmarried operatives, of either sex, without homes of their own live in lodgings; *i. e.*, hire a room of some married operative and furnish their own food. This is prepared by the housewife, and the expense for lodgings and food per week vary from $2 to $3.

The following "bill of fare" was furnished me by the intelligent manager of Tootal, Broadhurst, Lee & Co.'s model mill at Bolton: Breakfast: bread, butter, tea, with an egg occasionally. Dinner: potatoes, bacon, cold meat, and bread. Tea: bread and butter or "treacle" (molasses), and perhaps porridge. Fresh meat once or twice a week, with now and then some extra vegetables, while puddings and tarts and a "toast of cheese" are luxuries indulged in on Sundays, and sometimes oftener. This substantially furnishes a fair idea of the food operatives live upon in Lancashire.

Retail prices of provisions.

Bread	15		cents per loaf of four pounds.
Sugar	5	to 7	cents per pound.
Tea	44	to 60	cents per pound.
Coffee	28	to 35	cents per pound.
Butter	20	to 40	cents per pound.
Fresh meat	13	to 25	cents per pound.
Bacon	10	to 18	cents per pound.
Cheese	12	to 18	cents per pound.
Eggs	30	to 60	cents per dozen.
Potatoes	1½	to 2½	cents per pound.
Cabbages	4	to 6	cents each.

All vegetables are dear in comparison with American price for such eatables.

DIVIDENDS OF THE OLDHAM COTTON SPINNING AND MANUFACTURING COMPANIES FOR 1880.

In my last annual report the following facts were given: "Out of 125 cotton spinning and manufacturing companies mentioned in the Oldham Chronicle one paid a dividend for the last quarter of 2 per cent., one of 2½ per cent., two of 4 per cent., six of 5 per cent., one of 5½ per cent., two of 8 per cent., five of 10 per cent., while 104 paid no dividends, and in a great majority of cases made losses, more or less serious. At the close of the present year the same authority gives the following as the dividends for the most of the same mills:

	Per cent.
One paid a dividend of	2
Five paid a dividend of	5
One paid a dividend of	6
One paid a dividend of	6½
One paid a dividend of	7
Four paid a dividend of	7½
Three paid a dividend of	8
One paid a dividend of	9
One paid a dividend of	9½
Nine paid a dividend of	10
One paid a dividend of	10½
One paid a dividend of	12
One paid a dividend of	12½
Two paid a dividend of	13
One paid a dividend of	15
Three paid a dividend of	20
One paid a dividend of	22

Leaving over 50 paying no dividends at present.

It should be mentioned, however, that all these mills work with partly "loan capital" and partly "share capital," the proportions of "loan capital" ranging from 30 per cent. of the total capital to 60 per cent. In addition to the dividends mentioned in the list here given, interest varying from 4 per cent. to 6 per cent. has been paid upon all the "loan capital" of all the mills. The "loan capital" interest *must* be paid before dividends are declared on the "share capital."

The improvement in the interest-paying power of these companies has led to a large advance in the value of the shares; and this phase of the trade proves that there is a better feeling among manufacturers, and that times are better than they have been for several years.

ALBERT D. SHAW,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Manchester, January 12, 1881.

DEPARTMENT CIRCULAR.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, March 19, 1880.

To ——— ———, Esq.,
Consul of the United States at ———:

SIR: The attention of the Department has been directed, in the interest of the cotton manufacturers of the United States, to the advantages that may be secured through the agency of the consular officers in obtaining such facts as are within their reach in regard to the trade of foreign countries in the various fabrics of that article. Particular interest is attached to the article of cotton yarns, the exportation of which from England exceeds $63,000,000 in value annually, and which is only one item of the cotton export. It is represented that the manufacturers of the United States may secure no inconsiderable share of this trade, especially as the means of producing all fabrics of cotton enables them to compete successfully with foreign manufacturers both in cheapness and quality of the goods.

With a view of lending what aid the Department properly can towards developing and enlarging this trade, a series of questions has been prepared, a copy of which is subjoined hereto, and which is intended to secure very full and accurate information upon the character and amount of the cotton trade within your district, with particular reference to the trade in cotton yarns. These questions are accompanied by a tabular statement showing the exports of cotton yarns from England for the year 1878.

The subject of this instruction is commended to your special attention. The replies to the several questions should follow the order of the questions so far as this is practicable, and should contain the fullest information that a careful study of the subject and the facilities of your position may enable you to obtain. The expense of obtaining the samples, which should not in any case exceed a few dollars, if so much, may be stated in your quarterly miscellaneous account.

The subject of cotton manufacture is one of great and permanent interest to this country. While it is expected that your report under this instruction will be made at as early a day as possible, yet it will be your duty to continue to observe with attention the trade of your district in this respect and to report from time to time such particulars as you may have reason to think will advance the interests of manufacturers in the United States.

The reports upon this subject will be published by the Department.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

WM. M. EVARTS.

COTTON—MANUFACTURES FROM, WHOLLY OR IN PART.

FIRST SERIES OF INQUIRIES.

In the year 1878 England exported to ———, ——— pounds of cotton yarns valued in England at time of shipment at £ ———, or in United States gold, $ ———.

1. What portion of this yarn and value was imported into the port or district represented by you?

2. What quantity of this yarn was imported, reeled into skeins and put up in ten-pound bundles, and known in the trade as throstle spun, or water twist, or warp yarn?

3. What were the numbers of this yarn, and the prices it sold for per pound in United States gold?

4. What quantity of this yarn was imported in pin cops and known as mule twist or weft yarn, packed in casks or case of about 600 pounds each, or other size packages?

5. What were the numbers of this yarn, and prices it sold for in United States gold?

6. What use is made of these yarns? Give a description as full as you can procure of all the various kinds of manufactures of which these yarns form the whole or part of the product.

7. When made into cloth procure and send samples, each 6 inches long, 4 inches wide, of as many varieties and widths as possible, with tags or labels securely attached, with widths and prices marked on same, including wholesale and retail in United States gold, also the annual salable quantities in yards.

8. Are these yarns of uniform quality, or are there certain English manufacturers whose products have a preference? If so, state their names and the trade-marks under which they are sold.

9. Are there any yarns imported that are the manufacture of the United States? If so, give replies, as asked in questions 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7.

10. Give the names and addresses of responsible English commission merchants and traders who receive and sell these yarns.

11. Give the names and addresses of reliable and responsible American commission merchants who are advantageously located to introduce and sell yarns and cloth, the manufacture of the United States. If none are located there, give the names and addresses of parties of any nationality that will meet these requirements.

12. Are the English yarns consigned to commission merchants to be sold on English account, or are the goods purchased in England and owned by the parties selling them?

13. Procure and send samples, each 6 inches long, 4 inches wide, of gray and brown cotton cloth, English and American or any other manufacture, as specified in question 7, and state their widths in inches, and the lengths in yards which the pieces are put up, and whether they are sold by the yard or piece, and the prices wholesale and retail, and about the quantity required for an annual supply.

14. Procure and send samples, each six inches long, 4 inches wide, of bleached cotton sheetings and shirtings, or any other bleached cotton cloth required for your market, of English and American or any other manufacture, with particulars as specified in questions 7 and 13.

15. Procure and send samples, each 6 inches long and 4 inches wide, of dyed, colored, and printed goods, such as cambrics, silesias, checks, ginghams, calicoes, &c., of English or American or any other manufacture, as specified in questions 7 and 13.

16. What charges would be incurred on the shipment to your locality, on yarns and the various kinds of cotton goods of which you send samples, including freights, duties, taxes, marine and fire insurance, port charges, labor, storage, exchange, commissions, guarantee, interest, discount, and any others there may be.

17. Give the names of the districts, cities, towns, &c., where these yarns and goods are principally sold or consumed, and the numbers of yarns best adapted to their wants, and the probable quantity in pounds and yards necessary for their annual supply.

18. Are any of the yarns used for the manufacture of rope, lines, cords, twines, knitting yarns, &c.? If so, give particulars as to the numbers of yarns used, and the quantities in pounds annually.

19. Any information which you are in possession of or can procure bearing on these inquiries, which has been overlooked or omitted to be asked for here, report the same as full as possible.

20. If the articles named herein are not imported direct at the port or district represented by you, state where and how the supplies of such goods are obtained, with full particulars.

21. In sending samples, make a detailed statement to accompany them, containing their numbers, the names and addresses of the parties from whom you obtain them, the dates of their procurement, and all the information you can obtain relating to the goods they represent, and forward this statement with the samples.

22. In your investigation, if you find any styles of goods, novelties in the market, that are in limited supply with a good and prospective increasing demand for them, send at the earliest opportunity samples and particulars as directed in questions 7 and 13.

AFRICA.

SOUTHERN DIVISION.

(From Senegambia around the Cape of Good Hope to Cape Guardafui.)

SIERRA LEONE.

REPORT BY CONSUL LEWIS.

I have the honor to reply to circular letter, dated March 19, 1880, regarding the importation of "cotton yarns," as follows:

There are no "cotton yarns" of any kinds imported into Sierra Leone from any country. There is no machinery for manufacturing yarn into cloth, and no demand for cotton yarn for any purpose.

I send under separate cover ten samples of cotton cloths, one cap, and one cotton handkerchief, with prices attached; all of English make.

JUDSON A. LEWIS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sierra Leone, November 13, 1880.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF ST. PAUL DE LOANDO.

REPORT BY CONSUL NEWTON.

With reference to circular of March 19, marked "separate," I have the honor to say that the yarns principally referred to are not imported into this market.

The goods principally used in this trade are as follows, and I beg to submit the following information in reference to the same, as it may be useful to merchants and manufacturers anxious to cultivate this trade.

SAMPLE No. 1.

Gray domestics—Portuguese name, *Algodões*—of good quality, 30 yards long by 25 inches wide, put up in bales of 100 pieces, each piece weighing from 7½ pounds to 9 pounds; to be doubled in 40 folds or laps. They generally have a good deal of starch, which makes them sell better. Cost price in England, 6*s.* to 6*s.* 10*d.* per piece; selling price in Loando, 2,400 reis, or $2.60, per piece. Pieces of 30 yards by 22 inches, 5*s.* per piece; 1,900 reis, or $2.60, per piece.

Thirty yards by 30 inches, weight per piece 8¾ to 9½ pounds, only small quantity used. Cost price in England, 7*s.* 2*d.* to 8*s.* 6*d.* Selling price in Loando, 3,000 reis, or $3.26, per piece.

SAMPLE No. 2.

Striped denims or blue and white stripes.—Portuguese name, *Riscados Americanos Estreito.* Pieces 18 yards long by 25 inches wide; no red colors; 60 pieces per bale, weighing per piece 4 to 4½ pounds. Cost price in England, 5*s.* 2*d.* to 5*s.* 6*d.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 2,040 reis, or $2.22, per piece.

Striped denims.—Portuguese term, *Riscados Americanos largos.* Pieces 18 yards long by 30 inches wide; no red colors; 60 pieces per bale, weighing per piece 4½ to 5 pounds. Cost in England, 6*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* 2*d.* per piece. Selling price in Loanda, 2,640 reis, or $2.87, per piece.

SAMPLE No. 3.

Blue and white checks.—Portuguese name, *Riscados Chumbos* or *Maclussos.* Length and width, selling prices, weight, &c., same as striped denims; both wide and narrow quality used. These generally cost a penny or so dearer than the stripes.

SAMPLE No. 4.

Blue baft.—Portuguese name, *Zuarte.* Pieces, 18 yards in length by 40 inches wide; weight per piece, 7 to 8½ pounds; 100 pieces per bale. Cost in England, 9*s.* 3*d.* to 10*s.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 4,200 reis, or $4.56, per piece.

SAMPLE No. 5.

Fancy prints—Portuguese name, *Chitas*—with clear ground and fast colors, 25 to 26 yards long, by 30 inches wide, 60 pieces per case, weight per piece, 5 pounds. Cost price in England, 8*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 3,600 reis, or $3.91, per piece.

SAMPLE No. 6.

Brilliantes.—Portuguese name, *Musselinas.* Pieces 26 yards long and 30 inches wide; 60 pieces per case; weight, 4¾ pounds per piece. Cost price in England, 8*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 3,600 reis, or $3.91, per piece.

SAMPLE No. 7.

White shirtings.—Portuguese name, *Morun* or *parmo patente.* Pieces 24 yards long, by 35 to 36 inches wide; weight, about 5¼ pounds per piece. Cost price in England 8*s.* to 8*s.* 9*d.* per piece; selling price in Loando, 3,800 rees, or $4.13, per piece. All these goods are sold in Loando, retail by the piece to the better class of natives. A considerable quantity is used up-country in the barter trade for coffee and rubber, although the following are the staple goods used in the barter trade.

In 1877 several pieces of goods of very good quality were brought in American vessels as samples, but they were unsalable on account of the sizes being unusual. The cloth was good, and if it had been put up in proper sizes would have sold well.

SAMPLE No. 8.

Common striped denims.—Portuguese name, *Riscados Americanos ordinarios.* Pieces of 16 to 17 yards long, and 23 to 24 inches wide; doubled in 18 folds or laps; 100 pieces per bale. Cost price in England, 2*s.* 2*d.*, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 850 to 1,000 reis, or $0.92 to $1.08 per piece.

SAMPLE No. 9.

Common blue and white checks.—Portugese name, *Riscados chumbos ordinarios.* Price, length, width, &c., same as above.

SAMPLE No. 10.

Common blue baft.—Portuguese name, *Zuarte ordinario;* 16 yards long by 26 inches wide; 100 pieces per bale; to be doubled in 18 folds or laps. Cost price in England, 2*s.* 2*d.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 900 to 1,000 reis, or $0.97 to $1.08 per piece.

SAMPLE No. 11.

Satin stripes.—Portuguese name, *Puilados.* Pieces of 16 to 17 yards long by 25 inches wide; 100 pieces per bale; to be doubled in 18 folds or laps. Cost price in England: blue and white, 3*s.* per piece; yellow, 3*s.* 5*d.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 1,100 reis, or $1.12, per piece; 1,300 reis, or $1.41, per piece.

SAMPLE No. 12.

Chilloes.—Portuguese name, *Fazenda de Lei;* 15 to 17 yards long by 27 inches wide; 120 pieces per bale; to be doubled in 17 folds or laps. Cost in England, 2*s.* 3*d.*, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* per piece. Selling price in Loando, 1,000 to 1,050 reis, or $1.08 to $1.14, per piece.

SAMPLE No. 13.

Striped Florentines.—Portuguese name, *Riscados aznes ordinarios.* Pieces of 16 to 17 yards long by 23 inches wide; 100 pieces per bale; to be doubled in 18 folds or laps. Cost price in England, 2*s.* 9*d.* to 3*s.* 10*d.* per piece Selling price in Loando, 1,200 to 1,500 reis, or $1.30 to $1.63, per piece.

All these should be well starched or sized; much more so than the finer goods, as they are all for the barter trade. There is great competition in this trade, and, often, they come a yard or two shorter, and an inch or so narrower, but all doubled to imitate goods of 18 yards, which used to be the regulation length.

Great attention should be paid to the regularity of the pieces in each bale, and to the packing.

Many qualities of handkerchiefs also are in use, ranging from 12 to 15 handkerchiefs per piece. However, I do not send sample of these, as the quality is so varied, and nearly all styles and qualities pass.

The duty on the above-mentioned cotton goods is as follows:* 85 reis, =9 cents, per kilogram on sample No. 1; 230 reis, = 25 cents, per kilogram on samples Nos. 2 to 13, and 4 per cent. more on the value here, which is usually calculated at about 30 per cent. over the invoice price.

When these goods come via Lisbon or from Lisbon in a Portuguese vessel they pay 70 per cent. of the before-mentioned duties. Manufactured in Portugal, and bringing a certificate to that effect, they pay only 20 per cent. of the before-mentioned duty. Should they come in foreign vessels from any other country they pay the full amount of duty as previously stated.

Shortly a new tariff is to be brought into force which will increase the duty on cotton goods considerably. As soon as I can procure a copy I will send it to the Department, with a translation.

Nearly all cotton goods come from Liverpool and London in steamer to Lisbon, and thence in the Portuguese steamers. At Lisbon they pay

*See also Tables of Cotton Tariffs of all Countries, in supplement to this work.

a small duty which allows them to pass here, paying only 70 per cent. of the duty.

The expenses via Lisbon from England, include carriage from Manchester to Liverpool, entry and cartage, freight and primage by steamers to Lisbon, and afterwards to this port.

Duty in Lisbon, without commission, is about 14 per cent. to 15 per cent. *

All these goods are used in the province of Angola, but at Ambriz and the North the sizes vary, and the trade is different.

My information is taken from different invoices received by mercantile houses established here.

The Portuguese steamers leave Lisbon on the 5th of every month for this port, touching at the other Portuguese colonies.

There are also two lines of steamers from Liverpool; but it does not suit to ship cotton goods by them, on account of the extra 30 per cent. duty the consignees would have to pay.

Nearly all goods that come here are in execution of orders on account and risk of the merchants here.

Consignments are not large, although a well-assorted establishment might do a good trade, as often the traders run short of different qualities in their assortments.

The usual commissions are 5 per cent. for selling, and 2 per cent. for remitting in bills and 4 per cent. for remitting in produce. Some houses, however, do the whole business for 5 per cent. commission without guarantee, and 8 per cent. with guarantee.

It is difficult to give the number of pieces used during a year, as no statistical statement of the same is kept in the custom-house.

However, I know of houses here that use from forty to fifty thousand pieces in a year.

The trade is nearly all in the hands of the Portuguese, and it would be difficult to get orders from this market.

Lately travelers have been here from England and Germany to solicit orders, but have done little or nothing.

The exchange is 4,500 reis per £1 sterling, or 920 reis per dollar.

ROBT. S. NEWTON,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
St. Paul Loando, September 14, 1880.

COTTON MANUFACTURES IN MADAGASCAR.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROBINSON, OF TAMATAVE.

I have the honor to acknowledge the reception by last mail of your No 40, April 20, last, and also the "separate" from the Hon. Secretary of State, dated March 19, last, asking a report upon cotton fabrics, and for samples of such fabrics as are sold or in demand in this market.

In complying with these instructions I beg first to inform you that I have forwarded by the bark Sarah Hobart, Captain Alexander Crocker, master, sailed to-day for New York direct, to be expressed from New York to the Department of State, a package containing a large number of cotton fabrics of English manufacture, such as have been and are

* See Portuguese Cotton Tariff, supplement.

now selling in this market. But I have found it impossible to comply fully with the letter of the instructions, both in regard to the form of many of the samples and in regard to the cost prices of these goods in England.

In the first place the importers of English goods have either refused pointedly to furnish me with their samples, or have exhibited such reluctance and evasion as to have the same result. To this statement I am able to make two honorable exceptions: Mr. Isaac Dupuy, importer, and Mr. John Kock, agent for Messrs. Wm. Oswold & Co., Hamburg, have furnished me with the samples sent, and also, freely and courteously, with such information in regard to cost prices, demands of the market, amounts imported, selling prices &c., as they were able to give.

As to the cost prices, the information is very difficult to get, on account of the general dislike on the part of the merchants to tell what their goods have cost them; and again, in a majority of instances, they are not certain themselves as to the exact first cost in England, as they are generally agents of European houses, and the goods are purchased and invoiced to them by the home houses or their agents in London. In such cases it is supposed that the goods are frequently invoiced higher than actual cost, especially as the price makes no difference in the import duties here, such being collected in kind.

The reluctance of the merchants here to give me the required information and samples is due, in my opinion, in some measure, to national jealousy of American trade, which I suppose is proper enough, perhaps praiseworthy; but more to a fear of future results in case the irrepressible "Yankee" should commence encroachments upon the lines of trade which he has left, up to the present moment, unmolested in their hands and control. They have seen the American brown cottons drive the English out of this market, and many of them fear the same result would follow the introduction of any other line of American goods, if placed with like determination, sagacity, and perseverance.

To obtain the samples from the retailers, necessitated the purchase of at least one yard of each, as they will cut no less, and in most cases not less than six yards of prints and some other goods; and to cut the sample of 4 by 6 inches would spoil the sale of at least one yard, and generally of six, as these goods generally come to this market in six yard pieces (called "Patnas") or some multiple of six. These are the reasons why the samples sent differ in form from the instructions received.

COTTON YARN.

In relation to this article the subject merits but few words in this report, for the reason that a very insignificant quantity only is imported, and the probability is that the demand will not increase under the present political and industrial condition of Madagascar.

The importation of the article from England in the year 1878 amounted to 120 or 150 pounds only. I cannot ascertain the precise amount for that year, but the sales have never exceeded 150 pounds per annum, and none has ever been imported from other countries. The sale has been confined to one English house here, having a branch up at the capital, where the yarn is retailed to the consumers; that locality being the only place where, up to the present time, there has been any demand.

The cost value was from $3 to $4 in United States gold. All of this yarn was brought to this port, and some of it sold here to native jobbers, who took it up to the capital; the balance being sent up by the importers

themselves, to be retailed from their branch house. All of this yarn was imported, reeled into skeins, and put up in ten-pound bundles, and known in the trade as throstle spun or water twist. The whole was No. 40, and it was sold at this port for from $6 to $7 a bundle, and at the capital for from $10 to $12; the cost in England being from $3 to $4. I must add that they were all colored—no white yarn has been or can be sold—the colors in greatest demand being orange, light blue, and bright red. The above answers the first three questions of the series. It also answers questions 4, 5, and 9, as none of the kinds referred to there have been brought here.

Sixth question. What use is made of these yarns? They are used in the manufacture of "lambas," an article of dress worn by both sexes. The term applies to the over-garment, of whatever material made, and is from two to three yards long, and from 60 to 72 inches wide, and is worn over the shoulders, something after the manner of wearing the shawl in civilized countries, but not folded diagonally, however. The principal materials of which they are now made are the American unbleached cotton sheetings and shirtings for men's wear, and frequently for women's wear; also, cotton printed goods of all varieties are extensively used. But the native women (principally the Kova women of the capital district, Imerina) weave a fancy lamba, with a very primitive loom, which is worn by both sexes on state occasions only. They are also sold in limited numbers to foreigners, who send them as curiosities to their friends at home. Much the largest number of them are wholly made of cotton. Some are made wholly of native silk, and some of silk and cotton mixed. They are generally designed in stripes and square checks of various brilliant colors, and are woven in two separate equal breadth pieces, which are subsequently sewed together lengthways, and the lamba is finished. The warp at both ends is usually left from 2 to 4 inches without filling, for fringes. The article is heavy, close woven, substantial, and quite rich and pretty in appearance. It also makes a very handsome bedspread. The cost ranges from two to three or four dollars for all cotton, according to size and design. Those of cotton and silk range from $5 to $6 upward, according to size, design, and proportion of silk. Those of all silk range from $12 to $40.

Of course it will be seen that fragments of these goods cannot be obtained to send as samples. However, I have the impression that some of the lambas are to be found stored with the State Department, having been forwarded, I think, by my predecessor, about the time our treaty was made, as presents from the Queen. The women also weave a cloth of cotton and "rofia" fiber, a sample of which I send herewith. The latter fiber is from the leaf of the rofia palm-tree, which is very abundant in the island, the leaves of which are 4 to 5 feet long and narrow, containing a thin pellicle between the outer rind or cuticle the whole length of the leaf. The leaves are opened with a knife and the pellicle stripped out and dried in the sun; this is the "rofia" fiber, and is easily separated into threads of any fineness down to that of a single hair. (I inclose a sample herewith.) It enters into a great variety of fabrics and uses, such as cloth made wholly of this material, and of a variety of qualities as to fineness of texture, and cloth made of it and of cotton yarn, usually in equal proportions. The cloth is used for clothing for the slaves and others of the lower classes, for lining the interior of houses, for curtains, for making bags, and many other uses. It is used also, very generally, by every one in place of twine, wherever a string or cord is needed; the native ropes are made of it; and, finally, considerable

quantities are shipped to Europe every season for tying bouquets of flowers and other uses.

Now the reason why larger quantities of cotton yarns are not demanded from abroad to be used in the manufacture of these lambas and cloths is this: A large proportion of the cotton yarn used in these fabrics is white, and the women spin, with a certain kind of primitive spindle, the native cotton of their own growing, to supply a portion of their requirements; for the balance, they ravel out the threads of the American unbleached cottons.

Time is of no consequence to them, habit everything; and notwithstanding white yarn has been offered for a less price per pound than the same weight of the American cloths costs them, they would not have it. But as they have not yet learned to produce certain colors as brilliant and durable as seen of the imported articles, they purchase as much yarn of such colors as may be required to manufacture the richer grade of these goods. To this amount the sale of imported yarns is restricted, and up to the present time they have been handled by one house only—that of Proctor Brothers, 155 Fenchurch street, London, with principal Madagascar house at Tamatave, and a branch house at the capital (Antananarivo).

OTHER COTTON GOODS.

In relation to other cotton goods brought to this port, it is impossible to give exact information upon two points required by paragraph 13 of the instructions—the quantities sold annually (except the American goods imported direct from the United States) and the wholesale prices. The reasons are given above. In fact, prices are so fluctuating, uncertain, and controlled by such a variety of casual temporary circumstances that it would be very difficult for any one to tell at any time what the ruling price of a commodity is. For instance, take the American brown cottons, which are staples of trade here and perhaps as stable u price as any commodity sold; at a cert ain time they are selling at a reasonable profit to the importer, the mail comes in bringing the quoted great rise for India rubber in the United States, and probably, orders from the owners of cotton at home to their agents here to purchase all the rubber they can get, and forward as soon as possible. Down goes the price of cotton goods to get money to do this—sometimes to cost prices at home—expecting the loss to be more than made up by the profit on the rubber. There are many other circumstances peculiar to the country, to the condition of things, to the character of the people, both merchants and consumers, entering into the causes of this confusion of prices pertaining to trade, wholesale and retail. From time immemorial trade has been conducted here upon a kind of piratical principle; that is, without any effort on the part of the trader to induce increase of consumption by careful purchases, low percentage of profit on sales, and regular supply, or to study the interests of his customers in view of promoting them and thereby establish his own business upon a permanent basis; but, to the contrary, goods are sold at the highe st possible price that he can manage to obtain, by persuasion, intrigue, misrepresentation, false reports, and even force sometimes—any way to rid himself of the goods in the shortest time, and without any care to keep himself supplied to meet the wants of regular customers. When you enter his boutique (shop or store) he looks at you as though wondering what could possibly bring you there—that is, if he notices you at all, which is doubtful. You ask for four yards of cloth to make a shirt, and

he tells you curtly that he does not sell less than a whole piece, 12, 24, or 40 yards, as the case may be. "But I need four yards very much, and that quantity only," you say. To this he may respond, if he happens to be of an accommodating disposition, by telling you in a condescending manner that perhaps you can find two other men who may need a shirt each and who will join you in the purchase of one of his 12-yard pieces, which you can divide among the three, in which case he will be happy to sell you such piece; and this in a tone and manner which show you that he will do this in order to be polite and accommodating; that, as for him, it is a matter of total indifference whether you buy or not, and that with this proposition he has expended upon you all the affability the occasion requires, and congratulates himself upon the *savoir-vivre* he has exhibited. This is a fair sample of the manner of nearly all the retail traders in disposing of almost all kinds of goods, but of course does not apply to the European and American importers, who do not pretend to retail. Without scruple of conscience the retailer puts upon his goods the highest profit he thinks possible to squeeze from his customers, ranging from 25 per cent. to 1,000 per cent. or more, the rate depending only upon amount of competition and demand, which frequently differ much in different localities. For example, I have been told of a trader located at a small port on this coast, north of here, who sold to the natives small brass faucets for tapping rum-barrels at $4 each, the same having cost him not over 25 or 30 cents each, and that the same kind of articles is now being sold at the same place at $1.50 each. I refer to this manner of conducting the retail trade to show the difficulty in stating prices. Thus the retail prices marked on the sample sent are probably in some cases lower than the goods have been sold for. In the case of American cottons, the selling prices marked on the samples sent are about the figures at which they have been standing during the last six or eight months, in consequence of the depression of trade caused by the Franco-Malagasy dispute and the tax levy for purchase of arms, as reported in former dispatches. The same quality of these goods sold here a few years ago at $120 to $130 per bale, and other goods in like proportion higher than at present. And I frequently hear the old resident traders grumbling in regret for the good time gone, when they took a bullock in payment for a needle! as they express it.

In regard to the annual sales of cotton fabrics in this market, I find it impossible to give exact figures, except in the case of United States goods. A large portion of the European goods are imported from Mauritius and Bourbon by many traders, with larger or smaller capital—men of all shades of oriental color and type—who either keep no record of their transactions, or keep them in such a loose, irregular manner as not to be able to give any definite information upon this question.

The agent of the German house here tells me that he thinks in the line of printed calicoes they import about one-half of the whole amount brought here (all the prints brought, with the exception of a very few French prints, are of English manufacture), and that their whole importations in that line during the twelve months from July 1, 1879, to June 31, 1880, were but little over $20,000 in value. This would show the whole value of the goods of that kind imported during the year to be between $40,000 and $50,000, provided the statement of this agent be correct.

Trade of all kinds was very much reduced, it is true, in prices and volume during the year given by political causes which I have reported in previous dispatches; but my own opinion is that the agent errs in regard to the quantity of prints imported by other parties, as I think

the importation of prints equals, if it does not exceed, in amount the importation of all other kinds of cotton fabrics, except the American brown cloths; and I also think that the importation of European cotton fabrics is equal to at least one-half of the whole amount of European goods brought here.

If this estimate be approximately true, and the estimate of my friend, the German agent, be correct, or nearly so, then the percentage of the whole trade taken by American productions imported direct is much larger than I have heretofore reported, as will be seen by the following exact statement of the quantity of American cotton goods imported during the same period mentioned above. Having control of the information upon the American trade, I give the exact figures as to quantity.

During said period there were landed at the port 6,857 bales of brown cotton cloths and one case of bleached goods, of a total valuation of near $600,000. As I have said before, the year was considered a bad one for trade, and especially so for these goods, for their sale has heretofore been almost wholly restricted to Hora purchasers for consumption in Imerina (the capital district) and other portions of the interior adjoining said district, and these sales were nearly all arrested entirely during months of the given year for reasons above alluded to.

But in the mean time a trade in these goods at points on this coast, both north and south of here, has commenced—I may say commenced, because so little has been done with our cottons heretofore in the coast districts, and the demand is increasing. The matters which arrested our trade with the capital being now one adjusted and the other nearly completed, it is expected that the trade in American cottons will grow into larger volume than ever before known.

I am requested to give the names of the towns or districts where cotton goods are sold. The request is indirectly responded to above, as the market embraces all the districts of this coast as well as the interior district of Imerina, where is situated the capital of Madagascar (Antananarivo, with an estimated population of 125,000). This place, (Tamatave) is the port of the capital (estimated population about 7,000) and for large vessels—such as come from the United States or from Europe—for all this east coast, as there is no other good harbor, and the coast is dangerous to strangers.

The principal market for all foreign goods, and especially for the American brown cloths, is at Antananarivo, the capital—that is, I mean where the larger portion of these goods are retailed. The importers generally have branch houses there to which they send up the goods. They also supply the Hora jobbers who come to this port to buy for the Antananarivo market. For the coast districts the goods are generally sold here to coast traders, who take them in coasting vessels to the various points on the coast, where they have retail posts. These coast-vessels are usually small, and are navigated by men well acquainted with the coast.

There is also a certain amount of trade between those various points and the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon direct, in European goods and Mauritius rum for imports, and cattle and other productions of this country for exports. But the volume of this trade I cannot state, as I have not, and have never had, the means of informing myself as to the figures.

I must also state that I am in the same ignorance in relation to the trade of the west coast. I only know that there is a considerable trade at Majunga and Nosi-be, both in American cottons and in European general merchandise, comprising in the latter a large proportion of cotton

fabrics, especially prints. The American part of the trade at Majunga is increasing, and I do not know but that the European trade is, also. Nosi-be is an island lying close to the coast, and north of Majunga, and belongs to France. It has at least two wholesale houses, French and German. Their trade is wholly with Madagascar, and largely in cotton fabrics. An agent of one of our American houses now is, and has been during several months past, located here with a stock of our brown cottons, and, I think, some of our other productions; but I have not yet heard how he is succeeding. I believe the German house there has been selling the same kind of American cottons during several years past.

Also, I am told that a considerable trade in cotton goods is had at several different places on the coast south of Majunga, notably at St. Augustin's Bay; and that American goods are thus introduced in small quantity only at those places as yet. These places are in the Sakalave country, and the Horas have no forts south of Majunga until Fort Dauphin at the southern extremity of the island. So the trade on the coast between those two places is rather clandestine; our merchantmen are prohibited by our treaty from visiting such places.

Finally, taking into consideration all the information I have been able to glean in regard to American trade at these various points outside of my direct control of exact information, I have come to the conclusion that the total value of American cotton goods imported into the island during the year mentioned must amount to near $800,000.

In regard to the samples sent, lot No. 1 is an assortment of samples of prints and goods called handkerchiefs—sizes, styles, and uses of the latter fully described on the label attached. Lot No. 2 is an assortment of samples of prints, which have been and still are selling to some extent, with cost and selling prices marked thereon by me. Lot No. 3 is a large assortment of samples of printed goods which have formerly been sold; but, with the exception of the two plaid handkerchiefs, the prices were not marked by me, as I was not able to get sufficient definite information. I only know that selling prices ruled much higher at the time they were in vogue than at present; and that cost prices were probably a little lower.

All the above are samples of English manufacture, and I have sent this great variety of designs, not so much for our manufacturers to imitate as to show to them and to our exporters that no peculiar, exclusive designs are demanded here. The natives differ in this respect from some of the native tribes of Africa. The samples forwarded show that a great variety of designs in this line of goods has been sold here. I must also say that the natives are quite fastidious in regard to these goods, and are continually changing their minds as to what they want; but are always searching after something new and attractive.

I would, therefore, say to our manufacturers and exporters, should they ever conclude to try to secure a part of this trade, (1) send goods of good quality; (2) do not aim to imitate precisely the samples sent, but study something new and attractive, of brilliant colors; (3) do not send large quantities of any one design at the same time; (4) change the designs for every new shipment; and if you have good and attractive prints which have remained on your hands until the designs have gone out of style in the home market, send them, they may be new here; (5) let the number of yards in a piece be six, or a multiple of six. Formerly all the prints brought here, or nearly so, were in six-yard pieces, called "patnas," but now larger pieces are the most in demand, and some of the merchants tell me that at the present time they are not even par-

ticular as to pieces containing odd numbers of yards, saying that they dispose of them in some way. But I think this concession is due to the practice of the exporter in not charging for the surplus yards. The samples in this lot called handkerchiefs are not used for the purposes that name would imply; but for making fancy petticoats or skirts for the women, a garment for which they require just six yards in length of material, which they cut into two pieces of three yards each and sew together lengthwise, and the garment is finished by sewing the two ends of this double breadth together. When worn, the upper edge of this three-yard circle is gathered in some mysterious way to the waist (I am not initiated into the precise manner of attaching it to the person) and it drapes the form from thence to the heels in as graceful folds as the most fastidious Washington belle might desire. These goods are generally made six handkerchiefs to the six-yard piece; but some of them are made with eight to the six yards. Of course it must be understood that the samples sent in this lot are diagonal halves of single handkerchiefs.

The designs of these are also rather out of style, although I see some are yet worn; but those like the samples in lot No. 1 are now more fashionable. Of the latest designs of these goods, just arrived, I have not obtained samples, but they are of more brilliant colors, in which red and orange predominate.

Lot No. 4 contains samples of English bleached cloths and drills; also one sample of Pondicherry blue cloth, and some samples of the English imitations of it. I would call the attention of our manufacturers to these blue cloths. They are worn here, as elsewhere in this tropical climate, very generally by the working classes, as our denims are in the United States. Even women's skirts, and frequently the bodices also, are made of this material. As yet the true Pondicherry, it is said, takes the preference, owing to the fact that the better quality of the imitations cost double the price of the genuine, while the inferior are considered too light and fragile. Can our manufacturers do better as to imitation and price?

All the above-described samples were sent by the Sarah Hobart, as above mentioned; they were all I had time to collect before the departure of the vessel. The following I have collected since, and forward herewith: The first are six samples of English bleached cloths, and one of English bleached drills, which properly belong to lot 4, mentioned above. They are labeled, showing their respective widths and selling prices.

Lot 5 contains four samples of French drills, labeled as above.

Lot 6 contains seven samples of the American brown cotton shirtings which now rule this market. They are duly marked; and it will be seen that prices are well down, owing to circumstances above described. These goods have sometimes sold here at $100 to even $130 per bale of 1,000 yards; and yet it will be seen that they are far from being the first quality of American brown cottons. I believe they are made principally of the sweepings of our factories, and especially for the trade in this ocean. Be this as it may, the Malagasy prefer this quality, and so far have refused our better samples. I have tried to get samples like the goods of English manufacture to send you, but have not been able to find them; four or five years ago I could have collected any number required. I am not to blame; the fault lies with the American goods.

The importers of these goods are, first, the house of John Bertram, of Salem, Mass., and Arnold, Hines & Co., of New York, represented here by R. M. Whitney, their chief agent for Madagascar. Second, George Ropes, of Boston, represented here by his agent, J. E. Sprague; but his

goods are at present sold, and produce bought on commission, by the English house of Proctor Brothers, always represented here by one of the firm; their London address I have given above. Third, the German house of Wm. Oswald & Co., of Hamburg, represented here by John Kock, their present chief agent for Madagascar.

Lot 8 contains samples of native Malagash manufacture before referred to, which I send as curiosities. Three of them are made of equal parts of cotton and the rofia fiber; three wholly of the rofia fiber, made fine for clothing, curtains, and like uses; and one also wholly of rofia, but coarse, and used for bags, lining rooms, and various other uses. This coarse quality is also much used for clothing for the slaves.

Lot 9 is the sample referred to above of the rofia fiber just as it comes from the leaf and is dried in the sun; the sample being the whole product of one leaf. The rofia plant, a species of palm, grows on marshy ground, and resembles somewhat a pond of the cocoanut tree, except that its narrow spike-like leaves are longer, each plant bearing a great number of these leaves.

As to American merchants advantageously located to introduce and sell American cotton fabrics, I can refer only to the three firms mentioned above.

Of these, the first two, John Bertram and Arnold, Hines & Co., have heretofore shown little or no desire to introduce American goods of any kind other than the brown cottons and kerosene. They made the invasion and won the field for the brown cottons, and now seem to desire to occupy that line only, especially as their present trade in this ocean gives full employment to their fleet. As to Mr. Ropes, he may feel differently. Indeed I think, from all I have been able to learn of this part of the subject, that he would be willing to handle any kind of American goods, if called for by his agents with the assurance of a fair prospect for a successful introduction. But so long as his present arrangements exist, of giving his goods to an English house to sell on commission, it will be useless for him to send other cotton goods, because such would come in conflict with like English goods in the same hands; the firm being regularly established in the English trade, with headquarters in London, and connections with the English manufacturers, probably. Of course the firm is willing to handle the American brown cottons and kerosene. Those articles do not come in conflict with their English trade.

I am told by the courteous agent of the German firm above mentioned (Wm. Oswald & Co., of Hamburg) that they are not only willing to handle American cotton fabrics of various kinds, but have desired to do so, as they liked the quality of our goods, and would prefer, when sending their vessel to New York to purchase part cargoes of our brown cottons for this market, to fill the balance with our other fabrics suitable for this trade; that their agents have tried to do this, especially in the line of cotton prints, but have been treated very cavalierly by our merchants, who had responded to the wish of the agents to order goods of certain designs, and of a certain number of yards to a piece, with the remark, expressed with much indifference, that they had no goods so uniformly measured, and that as to designs, they could not get them printed to special orders, and further intimated that if their goods as seen did not suit, the inquirer might go to some other market. In this way, the agent says, they were driven back to the English market, where they are met by accommodating merchants and manufacturers, whose agents call upon their agents in London every time the mail arrives from their trading posts, to ask if anything new is wanted in designs, or other particulars, and, says he, the English manufacturer is always

ready and anxious to comply with suggestions, and responds promptly to every order, great or small; in short, he studies the wants of the different markets and conforms to them. If my informant states facts in regard to the manner of some of the New York merchants, it would show that Madagascar is not the sole market where the seller is the only party to be considered, and that our merchants need to change base if they desire to increase their foreign trade.

Mr. Isaac Dupuy tells me that he would be pleased to handle American goods of all kinds, including, of course, cotton fabrics, if they could be got out here. He is a Mauritius creole British subject, engaged here in wholesale and retail trade in general merchandise; having lived at this port and followed that line of business during many years last past. He is perfectly conversant with the three needed languages, English, French, and Malagasy, as well as with all the ropes and wires of trade in this part of Madagascar. He is also independent in character and relations of commerce, as he is in purse, and has no commercial ties binding him to the merchants or manufacturers of any particular locality or nationality. In short, he is independent and responsible, and willing to take American goods on commission should our exporters see fit to consign to him, and give them as fair a chance for sales as goods received from other sources.

However, I must repeat what I have said in former reports and in private letters, and that is, that what needs to be done, and what must be done before American goods can take any considerable part of the trade which now runs through European channels, is the establishment at this port of another American house, wholesale and retail, with American agents, and vessels to come at least every six months, one to keep up a supply of stock and to take back the produce bought and money received. And if this is needed in relation to the balance of trade in cotton goods, it is yet more needed for a trade in general merchandise and American specialties. When such an arrangement shall be made, we will see a large increase in our trade with this country, and not till then.

W. W. ROBINSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tamatave, Madagascar, August 7, 1880.

NORTHERN DIVISION.

(From the Canary Islands, around by the Barbary States, to the Gulf of Aden.)

THE IMPORTS AND TRADE IN COTTON GOODS AND COTTON YARNS IN MOROCCO.

REPORT OF CONSUL MATHEWS, OF TANGIER.

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your instruction dated the 19th of March last, accompanied by a series of questions on the subject of the trade in cotton and cotton yarns in this country. These documents reached me on the 9th instant, and I now hasten to comply with your request in what is related to the Empire of Morocco.

The questions accompanying your dispatch, to a certain extent, are not applicable to Morocco, as this country imports yarns in very small quantities from England and France.

British-manufactured cotton goods are imported on a large scale; a parcel containing samples, with prices, width, &c., attached to them, in English shillings and pence, I have forwarded this day to the Department.

ANSWERS TO THE SERIES OF INQUIRIES.

1. The following is a return of yarns and cotton goods imported from the United Kingdom and France during the year 1878:

Yarns, 27 boxes, England, value, £1,260; cotton stuffs, 5,445 bales, England, value, £291,080; cotton stuffs, 214 bales, France, value, £2,202; yarns, 77 boxes, France, value, £2,940.

Owing to the failure of crops in the years 1877–'78, the importation of goods from the United Kingdom has been comparatively short; but in normal years the amount of cotton goods in bales exceeds 10,000.

2. Yarns are imported into the various ports of Morocco only in bales and boxes.

3. Number 20 is the most in demand, and sells, according to quality, from 30 to 40 cents.

4. Yarns for the Morocco market come in packages of 25 pounds.

5. Number 20 sold for from 30 to 40 cents.

6. The yarns are employed in the manufacture of haiks (a piece of stuff from three to five yards in length and two yards in width), the overall covering of the Moors of both sexes in general.

7. A sample 6 inches long, 4 inches wide, is inclosed in the parcel labeled "Moorish manufacture, 'Couscousoo.'" This stuff is manufactured principally at Fez, in pieces single and double, five and a quarter yards long, 48 inches wide, the single piece, and ten yards and a half by 48 inches, the double piece.

8. The yarns are of uniform quality, and there is no preference in the English-manufactured products.

9. No yarns are imported manufactured from the United States.

10. The cotton goods and yarns are imported and sold by Hebrew and Moorish merchants and by a very small number of British merchants. There are no English commission merchants in Morocco who receive these yarns.

11. There are no American commission merchants in this country.

In order to introduce here American cotton goods, such as cambrics, calicoes, prints, &c., I would name for Tangier the house of Mr. Mesod Abecasis, reliable and advantageously located for the sale of yarns and all kind of cotton stuffs manufactured in the United States; for which purpose some samples should be forwarded to the said firm, which has its connections with traders in the interior.

In my next on this subject I shall send the names of merchants dealing in cotton goods at all the other ports and towns in the Empire of Morocco.

12. The yarns and cotton goods are purchased in England and France and some in Gibraltar, and imported and sold by the parties selling them for their own account.

13, 14, 15. A parcel of samples has been forwarded by me through Mr. Stevens, at London, each sample with labels stating lengths, widths, prices, weight, measures, &c.

16. The duty on manufactured cotton goods and yarns is 10 per cent. of the value;* other expenses are small. There is no fire insurance in this country; discount is sometimes allowed from 1 to 2 per cent., commission 2 per cent., and 1 per cent., guaranty.

* See Cotton Tariffs of all Countries in supplement herewith.

17. Goods and yarns are sold in almost all the towns and cities of Morocco.

18. No use is made of yarns for the manufacture of rope, lines, &c.

19. In my next on this subject I will endeavor to give further information procured from the interior of Morocco.

20. The articles named herein are imported direct from England, France, and Gibraltar, to the various ports of Morocco, by the established lines of British and French steamers running semi-monthly from London and Marseilles, calling at Gibraltar on their way to the ports of Morocco.

21. The samples of cotton goods, &c., are from the wholesale house of Mr. Mesod Abecasis, of Tangier, obtained on the 10th instant; each sample is labeled with name of manufacturer and all other particulars.

The sample of "couscousoo," stuff manufactured at Fez, I procured from the house of Mr. Isaac Benjaquer, of Tangier.

22. I have included in the parcel, samples of styles and novelties of goods in this market, and which are in limited supply, but with a fair prospect of increasing demand. I have marked these samples on their labels "novelty."

On receipt of the information on these subjects from the interior and from the various ports of Morocco, I will without delay transmit the same to your Department.

FELIX A. MATHEWS,
Consul.

TANGIER, *June* 15, 1881.

TRADE IN COTTON YARNS AND COTTON GOODS IN TRIPOLI.

FIRST REPORT BY CONSUL JONES.

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt on the 27th ultimo of your circular dispatch of March 19, 1880, requesting me, in the interest of the cotton manufacturers of the United States, to furnish the Department with certain information regarding the trade in cotton yarns and cotton goods within my consular district, and I have now to submit the following in reply to your specified questions relating to this subject. Wherever my answers do not fully express the information called for by the queries, you will please consider that I have been unable to obtain such with any degree of exactitude.

Since my arrival here the cotton trade of this regency, which shows a steady annual increase, has ever occupied my attention. I have let no occasion escape to impress upon the minds of the merchants here that there is a material advantage to be obtained by importing their cotton goods from America, but owing to the manner in which this trade is carried on in the majority of cases, and of which I have spoken at length in my annual reports for the years 1878 and 1879, to which I respectfully refer you, I have in the past been unable to persuade any merchant here to test the veracity of my assertion. I have now, however, to inform you that Messrs. Guiseppe & Francesco Galea (wholesale merchants, who give their whole attention to the importation of cotton yarns and cotton goods, and gentlemen whose business integrity is unquestionable, and to whom I am principally indebted for the information contained in this dispatch) have declared themselves ready to receive and attempt the introduction of our goods into this regency. To begin with, they would only desire the shipment of three or four bales of assorted goods for the purpose of ascertaining what quality of

American goods will meet with most favor in this market. Messrs. Galea are unwilling to take the risk of the possible loss which may be incurred by the importation of these goods, saying that they are entirely in the dark as regards their prices and the expenses incidental to their shipment from America to Tripoli; but, as I have said, they will receive and dispose of them to the best advantage, and, if they find it profitable, will then open business relations with some of our manufacturers, returning drafts for goods received.

I am most desirous to solve practically the question whether our goods can compete advantageously with similar products of English manufacture in this market, and I therefore hope that there may be some of our manufacturers sufficiently enterprising to second me in this undertaking. The loss, after all, if such there be, on a small shipment of goods could be but insignificant, whereas the benefit to be derived if the undertaking prove successful would be considerable. Something of this kind will have to be done if our goods are ever to reach these distant markets. Much will depend upon the issue of this first trial, which the merchant or manufacturer who may act upon Messrs. Galea's suggestion should take fully into consideration.

This market at present only consumes annually something over $1,000,000 of cotton goods, but I feel confident that no sooner will it have passed into the hands of some Christian power than this branch of its imports will greatly expand. For trading with Soudan and other parts of the interior Tripoli has advantages over both Tunis and Algeria.

In connection with this subject, I deem it regrettable that the United States never attempted to obtain an influence, not to say possession of any part of the African continent, not so much for the mere advantage that the possession of the coast would confer, but as a road through which its manufactures might be introduced into the interior. France and England, both manufacturing nations, besides their other vast possessions, are gradually extending their influence over this entire continent, and the doors to its (estimated) population of 200,000,000, all consumers, will be completely closed to the American merchant. In the day, which is in the near future, when America can compete successfully in any branch of manufactured articles, we will hear of protective tariffs in other countries besides our own, and these tariffs, where possible, will be also extended to their colonies.

CUTHBERT B. JONES.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN DEPARTMENT CIRCULAR.

No. 1. There is an estimated annual importation at this port of from 700 to 1,000 bales of cotton yarns. The bale weighs 560 pounds. From information obtained from the best of sources, I am led to believe that the importation of this article is on the increase.

No. 2. It is estimated that about one half of the yarns imported is water twist. It is reeled into skeins and put up in ten-pound bundles.

No. 3. Of this yarn, Nos. 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, and 20 are imported here; Nos. 6, 10, 16, and 18 are, however, most in use; Nos. 22 and 24 are rarely, if ever, sold here. The prices per pound in United States gold are: No. 6, from 15.2 to 20 9 cents; No. 10, from 17.1 to 22.8 cents; No. 16, from 24.3 to 25.8 cents; No. 18 sells for the same price as No. 16.

No. 4. About one-half the yarn imported is known as mule twist. It is put up in ten-pound bundles.

No. 5. Of mule twist Nos. 6, 10, 16, and 18 are imported here and sell for the same prices as water twist. When either water twist or mule

twist are dyed here 15 cents must be added to the above prices, and only 11 cents when dyed in England. They are of every color; blue and red, however, are the most popular.

No. 6. The yarns imported here are used exclusively for making what is called, in Arabic, rdà, a garment exactly similar to the baracan, but which is only worn by negro women and the wives of the poorest class of Arabs. The rdà is 12½ feet long and 4 feet wide.

No. 7. The annual salable quantity of these garments not ascertainable. Please see statement accompanying samples.

No. 8. The yarns imported here are of uniform quality. I know of no English manufacturer to whom preference is given.

No. 9. There are no yarns imported from the United States.

No. 10. There are no English commission merchants in this city.

No. 11. There are no American commission merchants here. Of other nationality I beg to recommend Signori Guiseppe & Francesco Galea.

No. 12. The goods are purchased in England and owned by the parties selling them.

Nos. 13, 14, 15. Samples forwarded. For particulars, please see statement accompanying samples.

No. 16. It is quite impossible to obtain an account of the charges which would be incurred in importing goods from the United States. The following are the expenses incurred in importing one bale of goods valued at, say, £50, from England to Tripoli: packing, £1; freight from Manchester to Liverpool, 10*s.*; freight from Liverpool to Malta, from 15*s.* to 16*s.*; freight from Malta to Tripoli, 12*s.*; commission, at the rate of 2 per cent., £1; insurance from Liverpool to Malta, at the rate of ⅜ of 1 per cent., 3*s.* 9*d.*; insurance from Malta to Tripoli, at the rate of ¼ of 1 per cent., 1*s.* 3*d.*; storage and porterage in Malta, 3*s.*; porterage in Tripoli (no carts are allowed within the walls of this town), 1*s.* 6*d.*; duty, at the rate of 8 per cent., £4. According to the above the total expenses and charges on one bale of goods, whose original value was, say, £50, when deposited in the warehouse of the merchant in Tripoli would amount to £8 7*s.* 6*d.*, which is 16¾ per cent. of the original cost.

No. 17. The yarns are entirely consumed here as is stated in No. 6, and are sold within the town and immediate environs. For the Nos. of yarn most in use please see answers Nos. 3 and 5. Of the goods imported the greater part go by way of Ghadames and Fezzan to Bornon and Soudan. It is quite impossible to state, with anything approaching exactitude, the amount in pounds and yards necessary for an annual supply. The amount of yarn as given in No. 1 is a mere estimate. The total value of cotton goods and cotton yarns imported during the year ending June 30, 1879, amounted to $1,218,795.

No. 18. No yarns are used for other purposes than for the manufacture of the rdá, as stated in answer No. 6.

No. 19. I can think of nothing worthy of adding to the answer which I now have the honor to submit.

No. 20. The total amount of cotton goods and cotton yarns is shipped from England to Malta, whence it is reshipped to Tripoli.

No. 21. Complied with.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF TRIPOLI.

SECOND REPORT BY CONSUL JONES.

I have the honor to transmit, herewith inclosed, the statement showing the dimensions and prices, with other particulars, of the cotton goods

and cotton yarns principally in demand in this market, samples of which I forward by this mail.

CUTHBERT B. JONES,
United States Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tripoli of Barbary, July 9, 1880.

Statement accompanying samples from Tripoli of Barbary.

No. of samples.	Width in inches.	Length in yards.	Price per piece.	Remarks.
1	24	24	$1 44	There is between the wholesale and retail price but a small difference, owing to the fact that a close competition exists between the retail merchants. This is applicable to all manufactured goods. It can be said that the greater part of this quality goes to the interior of Africa.
2	28	24	1 48	The greater part of this quality is also sent to the interior.
3	24	24	96 to $1 00	This quality is imported exclusively for trading with the interior. For this, however, there is no particular reason assigned.
4	25	24	1 16 to 1 20	This article is imported exclusively for trading with the interior.
5	24	24	1 08 to 1 12	The major portion goes to the interior.
6	28	24	1 44 to 1 48	Sold both here and in the interior.
7	28	24	1 16 to 1 44	Sold both here and in the interior.
8	28	24	1 44 to 1 46	Principally sold in city and immediate environs.
9	23	24	1 48 to 1 52	Sold both here and in the interior.
10	32	40	2 43 to 2 55	Sold here.
11	36	38	2 19 to 2 31	Sold here.
12	35	37 to 38	1 92 to 2 04	Sold both here and in the interior
13	35 to 36	39 to 40	2 91 to 2 97	Sold in city and immediate environs.
14	30	24	76	Used for making turbans. Nos. 1 to 14 were received from Guiseppe & Francesco Galea, on May 31, 1880.
15	31	40	2 67 to 2 91	Sold here.
16	36	39 to 40	2 91	Sold here principally. Nos. 15 and 16 were received from Guiseppe & Francesco Galea, on June 1, 1880.
17	29	29 to 30	2 43 to 2 55	Sold in city and immediate environs. But small quantity goes to the interior. The brightest colors are most in demand.
18	29	36	1 68 to 2 06	Sold in city and immediate environs. But small quantity goes to the interior. Nos. 17 and 18 were obtained from various merchants at different times.
19	28	24	1 58 to 1 68	Sold both here and in the interior. This stuff is dyed here. No. 19 was received from Guiseppe & Francesco Galea, on July 7, 1880.
20	40	40 to 45	6 46	Of this quality but a small quantity is imported. I give the price of this quality as I have received it from H. di B. Nahum, but cannot vouch that this is its true wholesale price.
21	40	40	6 64	Of this quality but a small quantity is imported. As regards the price, please see No. 20. Nos. 20 and 21 were received from H. di B. Nahum, on July 7, 1880.
22	.....	.....	Per doz., 54	Cotton handkerchief. Yearly consumption about 6,000 dozen. Different prints of the same quality arrive here in more or less large quantities. Inferior qualities are imported in comparatively large quantities for the trade with the interior.
23	48 to 50	4 to 4½	88	Rdás or barracan woven here. There are Rdás of different qualities and various prices. In making these garments the total amount of yarns imported here is consumed.
24	2½	.....	.....	The sample No. 24 is cloth woven in Soudan. As will be seen by close inspection, it is woven in narrow strips of various lengths. These strips are then sewn together for the purpose of making the garment which is called, in Arabic, tob—a wide-sleeved, flowing gown. The manner in which it is dyed is not known here.
25	6	15 3/10 to 20 3/10	.....	Used for making Rdás (barracans).
26	10	17 1/10 to 22 3/10	.....	As above.
27	16	24 3/10 to 25 3/10	.....	As above.
28	18	24 3/10 to 25 3/10	.....	As above.
29	18	37 to 38	.....	As above (blue).
30	20	48	.....	As above (red).
31	20	32	.....	As above (yellow). Nos. 25 to 31 were received from Guiseppe & Francesco Galea, on July 8, 1880.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

CULTIVATION OF COTTON AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON AND WOOLEN GOODS IN MEXICO.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL STROTHER, OF THE CITY OF MEXICO.

APPROXIMATE ESTIMATE OF THE MANUFACTURING PRODUCTION OF THE REPUBLIC.

Production per week in pieces of 32 to 33 varas (33 inches).

Unbleached cottons, mantas and threads:

Factories in the federal district and State of Mexico:

	Pieces.
Miraflores	2,500
La Fama	2,500
San Fernando	1,500
La Magdalena	3,000
La Hormiga	2,500
La Colmena	3,000
Rio Hondo	1,200
Maravilla	800

States of Puebla and Tlascala:

El Valor	1,000
La Constancia	1,200
Constantino Benitez	800
M. Conde	1,200
Patriotismo	3,000
A. Torres	1,000
Indepencia	700
Guadalupe	800
Asuncion	700
San José	500
La Carolina	1,500
La Concepcion	1,000
De L. G. Teruell	800
Mantas of handwork	2,000
City of Orizaba	3,000

Jalapa:

Sáyago, Molina, C. Teruell, Marca, L. M	5,000

Morelia:

De Macouzet Brothers	1,000
De F. Alva	500

Uruápan:

Company of shareholders	500

Querétaro:

Hercules and Pusirima	9,000

Salvatierra and Saria:

Providencia	1,500
La Reforma	1,500

Leon:

De Cánovas and Portillo, only thread.

Lagos:

De Rincon Gallardo	800

Guadalajara:

Escoba, Atemajac	2,500

Experiencia, Salto, only yarn.

	Pieces.
Aguas calientes:	
One small factory	200
Tepic:	
Iauja, Bellavista, Santiago	2,500
One small factory of thread.	
Colima:	
San Cayetano	400
La Harmonía	200
La Atrivida	200
San Luis:	
El Venado	1,000
Durango:	
Tunal	900
Belam	700
De Gursa	800
Salto	700
Chihuahua:	
Talamantes	1,200
Dolores	600
De Galvan & Franco	1,500
Mapimí:	
One factory	600
Parras (Coahuila):	
La Estrella	2,000
Saltillo:	
Las Palomas, Arizpe, Iberia	2,000
Monterey:	
De Tambrano Bro's	1,000
Sinaloa:	
Santiago Papasquiaro	1,000
Oajaca:	
Two or three factories	1,500
Chiapas and Yucatan:	
Some factories. Altogether 76,000 pieces per week, or nearly 4,000,000 per annum.	

Besides the factories cited there are others still whose names and locations are unknown. All the factories mentioned, with few exceptions, manufoture thread (yarns) for sale, and it may be calculated at from 12,000,000 to 18,000,000 Mexican pounds produced annually.

MEXICAN PRINTS AND CALICOES.

	Pieces.
Mexico:	
M. Ibañez	1,800
T. de la Torre	1,800
T. M. Carballedo	1,200
Puebla:	
Lions, Rueda & Co	1,200
Benitez Bro's	500
A. Villegas & Co	500
Durango:	
Francisco Gurza	500
T. Bracho	500
Another, whose name is unknown.	
Total pieces per week (or 4,000,000 annually)	8,000

Weekly production of pieces from 38 to 40 varas (33 inches).

FACTORIES OF WOOLEN CASSIMERES.

	Pieces.
Valley of Mexico:	
San Ildefonso	150
Minerva	80
Maravilla	80
El Aquila	140
Others:	
Arroyozarco	80
Tulanzingo	30
Celaya	160
Esperanza	100
Aguas Calientes.	
Durango.	
Total pieces per week	820

These factories make also carpets, woolen cloth, baise, gray blankets, bed covers, and woolen thread for sale for blankets, bed covers, and horse blankets, which the weavers make in their own houses.

RÉSUMÉ OF THE MANUFACTURES.

4,000,000 pieces of cotton and white cloth.
12,000,000 to 15,000,000 pounds of cotton thread.
400,000 pieces of prints.
2,000,000 yards of cassimeres and woolen cloth.

When all the necessary data are obtained it will be seen that the production is much greater than is here stated. The manufacture of woolen thread and other articles of wool is not taken into consideration in this calculation.

The foregoing is a correct copy.

Mexico, August 24, 1878.

JESUS FUENTES I MUÑIZ,
Chief Clerk.

IMPORT DUTIES ON FOREGOING ARTICLES.

[Extracts from tariff of 1872.]

Cotton goods and plain textiles, per square meter	$0 09
The same, twilled and cross-barred	16
The same, white, colored, glazed, or velveted	16
The same colored known as prints or calicoes	14
Cotton thread, white, per kilogram	60
The same	96
The same prepared for "Rebozos"	1 43

WOOLEN GOODS.

Cassimeres, coarse and fine, of all colors, with or without mixture of other material, per square meter	$1 40
Coarse woolen goods, wrappers, coverings, &c., per kilogram	1 72
Carpets, coarse and plain, wool, per square meter	63
The same, colored with cotton warp, per square meter	80
Yarns of all kinds and colors, per kilogram	1 72

REPORT ON THE CULTURE AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON IN THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO.

The cotton plant is supposed to be indigenous on the Gulf coast of Mexico, as Cortes, on his first landing, found the natives clothed in cotton fabrics of their own manufacture. It is said to be an exotic on the Pacific side, but the reasons for this opinion are not so satisfactorily stated. Its culture has been continued to the present day throughout

the country, but with very little improvement in the modes and methods which existed at the time of the conquest.

The principal cotton-producing States are: Vera Cruz, Guerrero, Chiapas, Oaxaca, Colima, Michoacan, Jalisco, Sinaloa, Sonora, Chihuahua, Durango, Coahuila.

VERA CRUZ.—The product of this State is estimated at about 8,000,000 pounds per annum. There are no data to enable us to estimate the product per acre, as land in this State is not measured by the acre, but rudely estimated by the square league, or by the still more unreliable standard of the "caballería," which signifies as much as a horse can travel round in a day.

The plant, however, grows so vigorously that each stock yields from two to five hundred pods, and it is calculated that the average yield to the acre is about 15 per cent. more than in the United States. After selecting sufficient seed for the next year's sowing, the remainder are used as fuel, cattle feed, or to manure the land. The seeds are separated from the lint almost universally by steam cotton gins from the United States.

The field labor in the cultivation of cotton is performed in the most primitive manner, and entirely without the aid of modern improved implements. The wages paid a laborer in the vicinity of Vera Cruz is 50 cents a day and maintenance, or 62½ cents without. In remoter sections of the State these figures may be reduced to one-half.

GUERRERO.—It is estimated that this State produces 5,300,000 pounds of cotton in the seed, about one-third of which, 33⅓ per cent., is pure fiber. We have no data to calculate the average produce per acre, and no means of even approximating the amount of land under culture.

Under the present system the great proprietors do not find cotton culture profitable, and consequently it is chiefly raised by small renters, who cultivate it in irregular patches by their own labor and the assistance of their families. In view, however, of the fertile soil and favorable climate of this region, it is believed that in the hands of more enterprising and intelligent cultivators the States of Guerrero and Oaxaca could be made to produce more cotton than all the Southern States of the American Union combined.

The cotton crop of Guerrero is cleaned by 13 American steam gins, 2 water-power and 3 horse-power gins; seed used for fuel and cattle feed.

The average pay of laborers is 37½ cents per diem. There is one cotton mill in the State with 48 looms, manufacturing goods for local use. There is also a considerable amount manufactured by hand looms. The remainder of the crop is sold for the mills of Michoacan Jalisco, Colima, and Sinaloa. The pure lint brings 15 cents per pound and is packed in bales weighing 150 or 160 pounds each.

JALISCO.—The crop in this State is about 2,000,000 pounds per annum; no conjecture as to the acreage under cultivation. It is estimated that an acre will produce 1,000 pounds of seed cotton, of which one-third is pure fiber. Wages of laborers from 37½ to 50 cents per diem. Seed used for fuel, cattle feed, and manure. American steam cotton gins are generally in use to clean the crop.

COLIMA. The annual crop of this State is stated at 257,000 pounds. In response to all other questions, the same as Jalisco.

SINALOA.—The estimated annual crop of this State is 1,750,000 pounds. The average yield per acre is estimated at 1,050 pounds; of seed 700 pounds; of pure fiber 350 pounds. The seed is used for fuel at the gas-works—one-third cotton seed and two-thirds coal. It is also used

for cattle feed and sold at 75 cents per quintal. Average wages of laborers 50 cents per diem, and in remote localities 25 cents and maintenance. The American steam cotton gin, called the Eagle, is the only machine used in this district. There are three cotton factories in operation in Sinaloa, but the whole crop of this State, two-thirds of that of Sonora, and considerable importations from Guerrero, all combined, do not suffice fully to supply the mills. The crop in this region suffers from superabundance of rain and insects, and is considered very uncertain.

SONORA.—The crop of this State averages about 1,000,000 pounds per annum, and the responses to other questions the same as in Sinaloa.

Three years ago the culture of cotton was introduced into Lower California, whose crop is reported at 500,000 pounds. The crop is said to be more certain there than elsewhere in Mexico and of decidedly superior quality. Its culture is now engaging the attention of landholders in that section, and great hopes are entertained of its future.

DURANGO.—The annual product of this State is estimated at 4,000,000 pounds; the product per acre at 1,500 pounds, yielding 420 pounds pure lint. The American (Eagle) steam gin and some few horse-power gins are the machines used for cleaning the cotton. The seed is used for heating steam-boilers and feeding cattle. Laborers' wages nominally 75 cents per diem, but being paid in high-priced goods are equivalent to not more than 30 cents in cash.

Cotton gatherers are paid from 12½ and 25 cents per arroba (25 pounds), and an active man can gather six arrobas in a day. The crops suffer very seriously from the attacks of vermin, such as worms, locusts, and pocks (viruela).

COAHUILA.—The annual production of this State is estimated at 3,000,000 pounds. Last year's crop being a partial failure, did not probably exceed 1,250,000 pounds; machinery, wages, and other details same as in Durango. In the Laguna cotton is perennial and does not require to be planted oftener than once in ten years. This district, containing about 1,200,000 acres, lies partly in Coahuila and partly in Durango, is of extraordinary fertility and well adapted to cotton, but is very little cultivated, and the cotton product of Coahuila is diminishing yearly.

From the States of Chiapas, Oaxaca, Michoacan, and Chihuahua I have not been able to obtain any reports whatever. While this leaves us without a basis for even a conjectural estimate of the whole amount produced in the Republic, we may nevertheless suppose that the general conditions of production and preparation for market are very nearly the same in these States as those from which we have heard.

In regard to the question of wages it should be observed that the figures named in the majority of the reports represent the prices paid in or near the maritime cities, or in the northern districts, where the wages of laborers are affected by their propinquity to the United States. In the interior and remote towns and districts of the Republic the wages of labor seldom exceed a real (12½ cents) per day, sometimes without food, sometimes with the addition of a small measure of corn (cuartillo), equivalent to about three pints, and worth about 6¼ cents. It would therefore be safe to estimate the average cost of labor in Mexico at 20 cents per day.

From the foregoing figures it is evident that the condition of the common laborer in Mexico is very humble, yet in view of the cheapness of living and the small requirements of life in this climate this per diem is adequate to his maintenance, and considering the inefficient and primitive methods used, his labor is not worth more than the wages paid.

The native operatives, employed in the factories are better paid, and, under the superintendence of Europeans or directors of experience, are esteemed excellent factory hands, quite equal to the average of those employed in England or the United States. Indeed they seem to possess a special aptitude for all work requiring patience and delicate manipulation, and exhibit a high degree of the imitative faculty which characterizes the Chinaman. What they seem to lack is the capacity (or habit) of organization and the ability to manage fine and complicated machinery. For the rest, the childlike improvidence and recklessness of the future, which characterizes the laboring masses in this country, is the principal barrier to their intellectual or material improvement.

The usual time for planting cotton is in June or July, according to the greater or less amount of moisture contained in the soil selected. They begin to gather the crop in February.

In the foregoing I have embodied all the information I have been enabled to gather on the culture of cotton in this country, regretting that my report is necessarily so vague and imperfect.

I inclose herewith a circular from the Census Office with answers to all the questions proposed, based upon the most reliable data that could be obtained.

I also inclose a statement (with a MS. translation) of Mexican manufactures of cotton and wool, prepared by Señor M. Romero for the use of the Mexican Government. I also inclose a package of 16 photographic pictures, showing the manner in which these goods are worn by the masses throughout the country. I was not able to procure triplicates of some of the pictures. I have also sent by express to the Department of State a package of samples of cotton fabrics manufactured here, as requested by the Superintendent of the Census.

DAVID H. STROTHER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Mexico, April 13, 1880.

IMPORTS OF COTTON MANUFACTURES AT MATAMOROS.

REPORT BY CONSUL SUTTON.

For convenience, I will divide the subject into (1) imports of cotton yarns and (2) imports of other manufactures of cotton.

(1). Under the first head, including questions 1 to 10 and questions 12 and 18, I would state that no cotton yarns are imported here. These yarns are for use in the manufacture of cloth, and there are no factories of any sort in this consular district. I am informed that there are several factories near Monterey, Saltillo, and other interior cities, but that all yarns used are spun at the factories, and that on account of the high import duty and other reasons there is no prospective market for these goods.

(2). Under the second head would come the imports of other manufactures of cotton.

Question 11. To that part of question 11 which asks the names and addresses of responsible American commission merchants who are advantageously located to introduce and sell cloth manufacture of the

United States I will state that there are none such. There are no strictly commission houses in this city, and the only house which is situated as to credit, experience, and business connections, both on the frontier and in the interior, to properly introduce American goods is that of James M. Belden.

Under question 19, I will further discuss the methods of doing business here and the classes of goods best adapted to this trade.

Question 13. This question asks for samples of gray and brown cotton cloth. By the gray I understand that cloth prepared for printing is meant. None of that sort is imported here. For the samples of brown cotton cloth I beg to refer to those samples marked A, Nos. 1 to 24, inclosed herewith, making part of those called for in the instruction. While to each sample is affixed a card giving the particulars asked for, yet I will note a few comments here. The 24 samples noted above are cottonades, 1 to 17, and drills, 18 to 24, used for outer clothing. Nos. 1 to 8 are the best French cottonades for sale in this market. Nos. 9 to 12 are the best English. Nos. 13 to 15 are cheap French goods, and Nos. 17 to 18 are English camlet jeans. No American goods of this class were found in this market. Nos. 18 to 24 are drills, of which Nos. 18 to 21 are English, and Nos. 22 to 24 are American. For statistics as to the annual supply of these goods reference is made to question 17.

Question 14. For the samples of cotton-sheetings, shirtings, and white goods called for in this question, I would refer you to the samples marked B, Nos. 1 to 12, inclosed herewith. Of these, Nos. 1 to 3 and Nos. 6 to 10 are American, while Nos. 4 to 5 and Nos. 11 and 12 are English. Very few of Nos. 4 to 5 of English goods are sold on this frontier, the trade being nearly entirely American. As to the trade with the interior I am informed that English goods are now going in in larger amounts than for some years, but that the preponderance is still in favor of the American. B, Nos. 11 and 12 are samples of Victoria lawns, of which there is a considerable market both here and in the interior. I am informed that the American goods cannot be put down in this market as cheap as the English, and that but few are imported. I was not able to obtain a sample of American goods to inclose. For statistics as to the annual supply of these goods reference is made to question 17.

Question 15. The samples asked by question 15 are inclosed, marked C, Nos. 1 to 170. Nos. 1 to 55 are English cambrics. No American cambrics were found in stock. The sale is not large on this frontier nor in the interior. The merchant of whom I obtained the 55 samples stated that this was a better assortment of colors and finish than could be obtained in the American market. It will be noted that the material is common, but the colors, finish, and low price sell the goods in this market. I found no cotton silesias and no checks in stock, and was informed that there was no demand for them. C, No. 56 is an English gingham, the only sample of any sort which I found in stock. In former years there was some sale for ginghams, but now they are rarely kept in stock. C, Nos. 57 to 100 are what are called here jaconets, all English, except the last two, which are American.

The English samples, 42 in number, are said to be a very good assortment in patterns, finish, and price for this market. The demand for these goods is not large and will not likely increase.

The most important article of cotton goods in this market is calico, and to show as fully as I am able the styles which are sold in this market, I inclose 70 samples. Of these, C, Nos. 101 to 135 are American; Nos. 101 to 133 are from samples selected by a merchant well informed

as to the needs of the frontier trade, and may be considered as a fair sample of the American calicoes in this market. C, Nos. 134 and 135, are poor colors and do not sell well. C, Nos. 136 to 170 are English calicoes, the last 32 numbers being an English samples book made in England from selections by a merchant of this city. It is said of the English samples that they are imitations of American styles; better as to finish and assortment of color, while inferior as to quality.

As to prices it is useless to quote, because of the fluctuations of the New York market, but I have given the present local retail and wholesale prices of samples. Two years ago, comparatively speaking, not a yard of English calico was imported here, either for frontier or interior use.

Within six months, owing to the rise in prices in the United States, and also to the fact that English manufacturers would make just the sort of goods needed and in quantities to suit, the imports of English calicoes have more than equaled that of the American.

At this writing the prices of American calicoes have gone down, so that they can be placed in this market at a less price than the English, and merchants who now have large lots of English calicoes on the way expect to lose on them.

As to the annual supply needed in this market, I give, under question 17, definite statistics as to imports of manufactures of cotton for three years, both from Europe and the United States. But I have no available data as to the amounts of the different articles, and can only give estimates which have been revised by those merchants who are best informed.

Question 16. To illustrate fully the various charges on these goods I will take two actual purchases, one from New York of American goods, the other from Liverpool of English. Of course the prices and freights are changeable, but the examples given will be fair examples of usual costs.

A merchant in this city purchased in New York five bales glazed cotton cambrics, 14,554 yards, of 24 to 25 inches in width:

Cost in New York, on board steamer, including marine insurance, United States currency		$682 72
BROWNSVILLE.		
Freight from New York by steamer, via Brazos de Santiago (average time 14 days) to Brownsville, on 38 feet 6 inches, at 35 cents, and 5 per cent. primage, United States currency		$14 15
Premium to Mexican money, 15 per cent		2 12
Custom-house fee and permit		1 62
Drayage to ferry		25
Crossing by flat-boat and labor		1 25
MATAMOROS.		
Drayage to custom-house and revision		1 25
Importation document stamp and storage		8 50
Duties caused on arriving in Zona, per tariff, on 8,281.66 square meters, at 14 cents	$1,159 43	
But duties paid—		
Municipal tax 1.37 per cent. of duties		15 88
Custom-house tax on weight, 1,937, at one-half cent per pound		9 68
		54 70
Premium on New York price to Mexican money, at 15 per cent..	102 41	
Matamoros cost of above	839 83	

Had these goods been ordered by a merchant in the interior, and received and forwarded through this city, the following charges would have been added:

Charges as above		$54 70
Full duties per tariff	$1,159 43	
Less paid on arrival	25 56	
		1,133 87
Cartage and labor (no storage)		1 00
Custom-house documents to cover transportation to interior and stamps		6 25
		1,195 82
Commission on cost in New York (currency)	$682 72	
Full charges here	1,195 88	
At 2½ per cent. on	1,878 60	46 97
		1,242 79
Add New York cost with premium at 15 per cent. to Mexican money		785 13
Total cost in Mexican money on board train for interior		2,027 92
It is thus seen the New York currency price is	$682 72	
The Matamoros cost, Mexican money	839 83	
And the cost on board carts for the interior		2,027 92

The second example will be charges on two cases cotton lawns and muslins received per English steamer from Liverpool to Brazos de Santiago, and by railway to Brownsville, Tex. (average time 49 days).

	£	s.	d.	
Cost on board at Liverpool, including marine insurance	112	5	4	
Freight, Liverpool to Brazos, 31 feet 7 inches, at 60s. per ton of 40 feet, and 10 per cent. primage	2	12	1	
	114	17	5	
Reduced to Mexican money at 42 pence the dollar				$656 40

BROWNSVILLE.

Freight from Brazos to Brownsville, Tex.—lighterage 3cents, and railway 12 cents per foot (currency)	$5 05	
Premium, 15 per cent.	75	
Custom-house fees, storage and cartage	4 32	
Warehouse and exportation in bonds	5 00	
Ferriage	52	
		$15 64

MATAMOROS.

Consular landing certificate and premium, 15 per cent	$2 30	
Cartage to custom-house, and storage	75	
Duties caused on arriving in "Zona," per tariff, on 1,081.91 square meters, at 16 cents	$653 10	
But duties paid—		
Municipal tax, 1.37 per cent. of duties	8 94	
Custom-house tax on weight on 835 pounds gross, at ¼ cent per pound	4 17	
Custom-house documents and stamps	3 27	
		19 43
Matamoros cost		691 47

If these goods had been ordered by a merchant from the interior, the additional charges would be—

Balance of duties	$639 99	
Cartage and labor	1 00	
Custom-house document and stamp	6 25	
		$647 2
Add Matamoros cost of		691 48
Add commission, 2½ per cent. on $1,338.72		33 47
And we have cost on carts for interior, with duties paid and freight to be paid		1,372 19

Returning to the first example, in which the New York price in currency was $682.72, the Matamoros cost in Mexican money $839.83, we find the total expenses, including exchange of money, show an increase of $157.11, or 23 per cent.; while the cost on carts for the interior, with duties paid and freights to pay at destination, is $2,027.98, an increase of $1,345.26, or 194 per cent. With the English goods at a value of $656.40, Mexican money, on board at Liverpool, or of $557.94 currency, we have a Matamoros value of $691.47, an increase of $133.53, or nearly 24 per cent. The additional time from Liverpool, as compared with New York, is also to be considered in favor of the New York market.

While speaking of the various expenses, it is necessary to state that those given in this question are actual transactions, but that the costs would vary with different goods and at different times. As regards the regular Mexican tariff on the samples inclosed, it will be sufficient for me to state in brief that the duties on calicoes (Indianas) are 14 cents the square meter, white bleached and unbleached 9 cents the square meter, on drills 16 cents the meter, and on cottonades 16 cents the square meter.

In the two examples given I have noted "duties caused on arriving in the Zona." In previous reports to the Department I have written at length in regard to the Zona Libre, and will in this instance only make such brief notice as is necessary. The Zona Libre is a narrow belt along the river extending from Matamoros to Nuevo (Monterey) Laredo, including the small cities of Reynosa, Camargo, Mier, and Guerrero, all in the State of Tamaulipas. Matamoros and Nuevo Laredo are the only custom-houses, and all goods must come in at one of these two cities. All dutiable goods entering either of these ports *cause* the regular Mexican tariff, as shown in the two examples. But the actual duties paid are, as shown, 1.37 per cent. of the regular tariff as a city tax and ½ cent per pound for inspection. These goods may be consumed, held, or sold in this city, or may, under bond to produce proof of destination, be carried inside the Zona by certain prescribed roads to the other cities named, all free of duties except for custom-house entries, stamps, &c. They may be carried out in quantities of less value than $10 without permit or duty. It is only when these goods are taken out of the city and destined for points outside the Zona that the remainder of the regular tariff must be paid. The tariff is the same for export back to the United States or Europe as to the interior.

The laws regarding the importation of goods are very intricate and severe. To illustrate, the example of glazed cabrics given herein was invoiced by the New York house at 24 to 25 inches wide, and they proved to overrun an inch or more. An extra duty of over $70 for the excess was charged and a fine of the same amount exacted. Since that transaction very severe laws have taken effect which make doing business in this country very risky, as a clerical error may, if it be over $300, make one liable to imprisonment and fines.

There is still one other point in regard to duties to which I will here make a brief reference. As I have previously reported on the subject, I will refer those desiring more definite information to the Department. It is what is called here "custom-house paper," and while it is so uncertain in quantity, quality, and price that no outsider could calculate on it, it is still of great importance to this port. Without it, fully one-half of the interior trade would probably be turned to other ports of entry. I will not describe it further than to say that in the matter of the five bales of glazed cambrics, given in the first example, the item of "less duties paid on arrival $1,133.87," the amount actually paid was about

$930, a difference of 18 per cent. At present and for months this "custom-house paper" is scarce (not equal to the demands of the trade), and the result would be less favorable to the importer.

I have given the cost of the two lots of goods in carts, duties paid and freights to pay at destination, as compared with the New York and Liverpool costs. It may be well to give some data as to freights and time in getting goods to the interior. "In freights" are usual higher than those from the interior to this city. The ordinary average of freights from this city to Monterey is $4.50 to $5 the carga of 300 pounds; to Saltillo, $5 to $6; to San Luis Potosi and Zacatecas, $11 to $12.

The average time when the roads are good to Monterey is 10 days, and to the other places in proportion.

The out-freight price from San Luis on goat skins is usually $7.50 per carga, or 2½ cents per pound.

Goods sent by the ox carts go slower and cheaper than by mule carts or mule wagons. All these freighters are usually trusty, and goods generally go through with perfect safety. In wet weather the delays are often many and vexatious, in some cases three weeks being required to get 30 miles out of this city.

In concluding this question, I will state that while I have endeavored to give information that would enable one to obtain such an idea of the costs, &c., as will be of service, yet I shall be glad to give further and special information, either on instructions from the Department or when requested by interested parties.

Question 17. The frontier demand which is supplied through this port would extend up river to and including Guerrero, and back from the line from 75 to 150 miles, and embrace a population of about 150,000. The interior trade which passes through this port goes to Monterey, Saltillo, and the cities farther away in the interior. The strictly "Zona" trade averages about one-third, and that to points beyond to about two-thirds of the annual interior exports. The imports of manufactures of cotton for the three years, by separate years, ending September 30, 1879, were as follows:

Manufactures of cotton.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.
From United States:			
Colored cotton goods	$223,279	$190,267	$215,181
Bleached and unbleached	90,267	200,367	106,185
Total	313,546	390,634	321,366
From Europe:			
All manufactures of cotton	271,243	287,277	319,211
Total imports of manufactures of cotton	584,789	677,911	640,577

To make a comparison between the total of imports and the imports of manufactures of cotton, I give the following summary:

	First year.	Second year.	Third year.
Imports from United States	$1,340,280	$1,330,779	$1,181,613
Imports from other foreign countries	639,101	986,833	783,492
Total imports	1,979,381	2,317,612	1,965,105

As a reason for not giving exact data as to the annual consumption of the various goods named in this report, it is proper to state that reliable statistics of any sort are hard to obtain. Previous to the report

made by me in February, 1879, none had ever been published. Those which I have forwarded to the Department with those which I now have in course of preparation in this office show the actual legitimate import trade of this whole frontier, except the Presidio and Paso del Norte, for the three years ending September 30, 1879. The time and expense involved in this were so considerable that I did not get the detailed report as to imports of different articles. It is impossible to obtain from Mexican custom-houses the nationality of the various goods, and so much of the statistics above given as show the country of manufacture I have been compelled to obtain from other sources. The following estimates have been revised by those merchants of this city who are best informed as to the subject.

Annual imports of brown cotton cloth similar to those marked A, inclosed herewith, $100,000.

Bleached and unbleached sheetings and shirting and other white goods, $150,000.

Dyed, colored, and printed goods, almost entirely calicoes, $250,000.

Question 19. Under question 11, I stated that there was no strictly commission house in this city. While there are several who would and occasionally do sell goods on commission, yet the majority of merchants either buy for themselves or receive and forward goods for interior merchants. The goods which are suitable for the Mexican market need to be very carefully selected, and as a consequence orders go largely from the interior to New York or Europe, while the goods are simply received and forwarded through this port.

There are four large houses in this city which buy to sell to retailers on the frontier and to some extent in the interior, but probably two-thirds of the imports are ordered either by sample or in person by the interior merchants and consigned to the forwarders in this city. Of these four houses, that of Mr. Belden, previously named in question 11, is the only one that fills the requirements of that question. The others do not care to undertake a commission business, besides which they deal more largely in other than manufactures of cotton.

There are several receiving and forwarding merchants who, as noted above, do occasionally receive small lots to sell on commission. Among these I would note Mr. Jasper A. Lynch (English), who would faithfully perform any duty intrusted to him. The only American forwarding merchant, Mr. Antonio M. Erhard, would not care to undertake the sale of American cotton goods on commission.

In regard to qualities of goods needed for this market it may be generally stated that nearly all are of a common or poor quality. Owing to the general poverty of the common people, the demand for good goods is but small.

As to the best methods of increasing the sale of American goods in this market there are two ways, one by shipping goods selected by the agent here to such a house as Mr. Belden to be sold on commission, and the other by establishing branch houses. In the present condition of trade I should consider the first the more certain to be reasonably profitable, but if there was a desire to build up and retain a steady trade the latter plan, if well carried out, might be preferable. In neither event is it probable that large profits could be realized, but a fair and moderately increasing business might be secured and retained.

Question 20. All the goods received at this port are received direct from and through the United States at the port of Brazos de Santiago and by railway to Brownsville, Tex. Very small amounts of goods

are occasionally brought in by Bagdad, the open roadstead on the Mexican side of the mouth of the Rio Grande.

Question 21. For the detailed statement to accompany the samples sent I beg to refer to the inclosure marked "Statement" inclosed herewith.

Question 22. I do not find any article that fills the conditions. The present state of trade is so unfavorable and the times generally so hard, that only the usual and necessary goods are in demand, and those do not sell very briskly. Should I at any time find such opportunity I will promptly avail myself of the instruction and report fully concerning them.

[Inclosure in the foregoing dispatch.]

Statement accompanying samples sent from United States consulate, Matamoros, July 1, 1880 (*dispatch No.* 105).

A, Nos. 1 to 24, brown cotton cloth.

A, Nos. 1 to 8, French cottonades.

A, Nos. 9 to 12, English cottonades.

A, Nos. 13 to 15, cheap French cottonades.

A, Nos. 16 to 17, cheap English camlet jeans.

Except for the last two, which seem to be falling out of favor, these goods all find a steady sale. It is stated that goods like—

A, Nos. 1 to 12 are not yet made in the United States. No American camlet jeans were found in stock. The sale of these is, however, small and growing less.

A, Nos. 18 to 21, are English cotton drills.

A, Nos. 22 to 24, are American cotton drills. The English samples are preferred for finish, thickness (starch), and colors. It is said that a better, appearing article can be got from England, and as the looks mainly sell the goods the English are more popular.

A, Nos. 1 to 15, sell more largely than any other article of cotton goods after calicoes and white goods.

B, Nos. 1 to 12, bleached and unbleached white cotton goods.

B, Nos. 1 to 3 and 6 to 10, are American goods used indifferently for sheeting and shirting by the poor people.

B, Nos. 4 to 5, are English sheeting, and have but small sale because of the high price.

B, Nos. 11 to 12, are English "Victoria lawns." These have a fair sale. No American lawns were found in stock, and it was thought that the English goods suitable for this market could be put down at less price than the American.

C, Nos. 1 to 170, dyed, colored, and printed goods, as cambrics, 55 samples; ginghams, 1 sample; jaconets, 44 samples; and calicoes, 70 samples.

C, Nos. 1 to 55, are English cambrics selected by a local merchant from samples furnished from England, and are considered a good assortment of colors for this market. The merchant furnishing these samples reports but a small demand and none of American manufacture. It was his opinion that he could not obtain the same assortment of colors and fineness of finish in the American markets at the same prices as the common qualities inclosed could be bought in England. He thought that American cambrics of the same quality could be purchased at a shade less, but the lack of finish and colors made their sale very slow.

C, No. 56, is an English gingham, the only sample of any sort which I found in stock. There is no present demand for them, although in former years some were sold.

Of cotton silesias and checks I found none in stock, and was informed that there was no sale for them

C, Nos. 57 to 98, are English jaconets, of which there is a medium sale.

The American goods are said to be about the same as to quality and price, but inferior in assortment of colors and finish.

C, Nos. 99 to 100, are American jaconets, and are fair samples of the few found in stock.

C, Nos. 101 to 170, are calicoes, of which the first 35 are American and the remainder are English.

C, Nos. 101 to 133, are from samples selected by a merchant well informed as to the frontier trade, and may be considered fair samples of the American calicoes on sale in this city.

C, Nos. 134 to 135, are poor colors, and do not sell well.

C, 136 to 170, are English calicoes, the last 32 samples being an English sample book made from the selections of a merchant of this city.

It is said that when American calicoes began to find favor in the Mexican market some years ago the merchants in the interior sent samples to England, which were there copied until they soon made goods having the styles, colors, finish, &c., and better than the American original in everything except the quality. I have seen goods on sale in this city which were American imitations even to the printed labels.

In closing this statement it is proper to remark that the notes and information regarding each sample is, in general, the experience of the merchant of whom the sample was obtained.

There will doubtless be found differences in the various retail and wholesale prices noted on the different samples, but I decided to retain the exact quotation of each merchant regarding his own goods.

As I have previously stated, no great dependence can be placed on these figures, as, not only do prices fluctuate from day to day, but each merchant has from two to three retail prices, according to the person with whom he is dealing. Knowing this peculiarity, I have endeavored to obtain a medium price in each case.

I have made three sample books a part of this inclosure, because in no other way could I so fully show the goods on sale in this market. Not being familiar with the goods treated in this statement, I have feared that I might omit some data which would be of service, and in closing can only offer to supplement this report in any manner which shall be desired.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

GUATEMALA.

COTTON MANUFACTURES IN GUATEMALA.

REPORT BY CONSUL MEDINA.

In the year 1878, Europe exported to the Republic of Guatemala yarn and cotton goods to the amount of $1,126,703.12, or in United States gold about $1,000,000. On account of the imperfect statistics, it is impossible to give the amount of yarn imported into the republic. But it is safe to say that 95 per cent. of the cotton goods imported came from England.

1. Ninety per cent. of the above imports were entered in the consular district of San José.

2. All water twist or warp yarn imported into the country comes reeled into skeins, and is put up in 10-pound packages in gray, and 5-pound packages in colored.

3. The numbers of the gray yarns are: 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20. Nos. 2 to 14 are sold at 35 cents per pound, U. S. gold. Nos. 14 to 20 are sold at 37 cents per pound, U. S. gold. The numbers in green, yellow, claret, and brown water twist are: 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, and sell at 65 cents per pound, U. S. gold. In Turkey-red water twist the numbers are: 12, 14, 16, 18, 20. 12 to 16 sell at $1.05 per pound, U. S. gold. 18 to 20 sell at $1.10 per pound, U. S. gold.

4 and 5. Neither mule twist nor weft yarn are imported.

6. The yarns are woven into ginghams, drills, sashes, &c., which are used exclusively as articles of dress by the Indian population.

8. The yarns are as a rule of uniform quality, excepting the Turkey-red water twist, of which Arch'd Orr, Ewins & Co's. Levenbank works, Glasgow (trade-mark a "Golden Egg"), is the only kind that they will use here.

9. As yet no yarns from the United States have been introduced into the republic.

10. There are no English dry-goods or commission houses in the republic.

11. The principal and most responsible wholesale dry-goods houses are: Victor, Matthew & Co., Frederico, Matthew, & Co., E. Ascoli & Co., Juliaz, Duran & Co., Martinez & Co., Minondo & Co., Meyer & Hermanos, all of Guatemala City.

12. Most of the yarn imported is owned by the parties selling it.

13 and 14. Gray cotton cloth, as well as shirtings and sheetings, is sold in this market in 24-yard pieces only. As a rule, the muslins are heavily starched and finished very stiff, in order to make the goods appear heavier.

15. In calicoes, the trade here is accustomed to buy two different widths; one in 29 inches, and the pieces running from 25 to 27 yards; the other in 24 to 25 inches, and in pieces of 29 to 30 yards. Bright and lively colors are most suited for the market. As regards ginghams, silesias, cambrics, and other printed goods, the usual width and yardage are customary here as in other markets.

16. The charges incurred on shipments to this market are as follows:

Freight from the United States per steamer is at the rate of from 80 cents to $1 per cubic foot.

Freight from Europe, 125 to 160 shillings per ton measurement.

Duties on dry goods average from 80 to 100 per cent.

Freight from the port to the capital is at the rate of 1½ to 2 cents per pound.

At the port they charge 50 cents per 100 pounds lighterage, and 50 cents per 100 pounds forwarding and storage.

Exchange on the United States is from 16 to 18 per cent., 90 days.

Exchange on England is from 12 to 15 per cent., 90 days.

The legal rate of interest is 12 per cent.

17. Guatemala City is the chief center of trade of the republic, and from there the goods are distributed through the country.

18. All ropes, twines, and lines are made of a fiber grown in the country.

J. F. MEDINA,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guatemala, July 28, 1880.

SAMPLES FROM GUATEMALA.

Annex to answers to inquiries made by Department of State.

No. 1. Procured July 1, 1880, from an Indian, is used for men's clothing, 24 to 25 inches wide, and sells at 18 to 20 cents a yard, United States gold.
No. 2. Is used for women's skirts, &c.; is made from 30 to 36 inches wide, and sells at from 18 to 25 cents per yard, United States gold.

GRAY CLOTH.

		Per piece.
No. 3.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 23 inches wide, wholesale price	$1 70
No. 4.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 24 inches wide, wholesale price	1 95
No. 5.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 25 inches wide, wholesale price	2 00
No. 6.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 26 inches wide, wholesale price	2 10
No. 7.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 28–29 inches wide, wholesale price	2 40
No. 8.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 29 inches wide, wholesale price	2 75
No. 9.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 31–32 inches wide, wholesale price	3 00
No. 10.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 35–36 inches wide, wholesale price	3 25

MUSLINS.

No. 11.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 23 inches wide, wholesale price	1 80
No. 12.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 24 inches wide, wholesale price	1 90
No. 13.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 26 inches wide, wholesale price	2 00
No. 14.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 28 inches wide, wholesale price	2 25
No. 15.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 29–30 inches wide, wholesale price	2 50
No. 16.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 35–36 inches wide, wholesale price	3 00
No. 17.	Sold in 24-yard pieces, 63–64 inches wide, wholesale price	10 00

PRINTS.

No. 18. Sold in pieces of 28–30 yards, 25 inches wide, wholesale price, $2.90 per piece.
No. 19. Sold in pieces of 25–27 yards, 29 inches wide, wholesale price, $3.75 per piece.
No. 20. Gingham, 27–28 inches wide, wholesale at 18 cents per yard, United States gold.
No. 21. Silesia, 35–36 inches wide, wholesale at 20 cents per yard, United States gold.
No. 22. Printed jaconets, 29–30 inches wide, 25–26 yards pieces, $3 per piece.
No. 23. Printed piqués, 30 inches wide, 25–27 yards pieces, $4 per piece.

J. F. MEDINA.

GUATEMALA, *July* 28, 1880.

THE WEST INDIES.

IMPORTS OF COTTON MANUFACTURES AT BARBADOES.

I have had the honor to receive from the Department on the 12th June, 1880, circular dated March 19, 1880, in regard to cotton yarns, &c. You will find inclosed the answers to the several questions, and a list of patterns. There are no manufactories of any kind on this island except sugar and rum. They even import all their provisions, except sweet potatoes and yams. They did grow some cotton during our civil war, but not now. Through the kind assistance of Messrs. George Whitfield & Co., English merchants here, I have been enabled (at small expense) to send you one box of samples of cotton manufactures that are sold here. You will see that there are no American goods, and also that the goods are of inferior quality.

I have just been shown a bale of cotton canvas manufactured in Baltimore, sent to England, and reshipped here, in its original package,

cheaper than it can be imported direct from the United States for want of agents here. There are no American store or shop keepers here—all are English.

W. H. POLLEYS, *Consul.*

BARBADOES, W. I., *August* 12, 1880.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN DEPARTMENT CIRCULAR.

No. 1. None.
No. 2. None.
No. 3. None.
No. 4. None.
No. 5. None.
No. 6. No use; no manufactories here.
No. 7. I send patterns of other similar, but of foreign, manufacture.
No. 8. None.
No. 9. No.
No. 10. Whitfields have given the names of several extensive English suppliers of various cotton manufactures.
No. 11. George Whitfield & Co.
No. 12. No yarn comes through purchases consignment.
No. 13. Am now sending patterns of English manufacture from George Whitfield & Co.
No. 14. Am now sending patterns of English manufacture from George Whitfield & Co.
No. 15. Am now sending patterns of English manufacture from George Whitfield & Co.
No. 16. Freight on cotton goods from New York to Barbadoes by steamer, about $5 per ton measurement; import duty, 4 per cent.; taxes, none; insurance, about ¾ per cent.; port charges, none; labor and storage none; exchange, 2 per cent.; commission, 2½ per cent.; guarantee, 2½; interest and discount, about 6 per cent.
No. 17. No city here other than Bridgetown; no yarns wanted, imported, or sold here. Cotton and other manufactures are sold in this town for distribution and consumption throughout the colony.
No. 18. No yarns used here for any manufacture.
No. 20. Very little cotton or other manufactures are imported from the United States direct or otherwise.
No. 21. I have done so.
No. 22. I will do so as often as I can learn of such.

W. H. POLLEYS.

BARBADOES, W. I., *August* 12, 1880.

Messrs. George Whitfield & Co. to Consul Polleys.

BARBADOES, *August* 10, 1880.

SIR: I have much pleasure in handing you the inclosed list of the patterns we sent you for the use of the United States Government. These patterns represent dry goods most in demand here, and we hope they may be of some assistance to your government in determining how well and successfully its manufacturers may compete for at least a share of our trade.

We need not say that we shall at all times be most happy to give you all the information we can respecting the different kinds of dry goods, iron, steel, leather, and

other manufactures imported here from England, or do any thing in our power that would assist in promoting an increase of commercial and social intercourse between this colony and the United States.

GEO. WHITFIELD & CO.

WOODBURY H. POLLEYS, Esq.,
United States Consul.

List of patterns for United States Government from George Whitfield & Co., Barbadoes.

Description of articles.	Prices.	Manufacturers.	Address.
Calicoes; 2 books; various prices		Rylands & Sons	Manchester.
Calico or long cloth	2*d.* to 2⅞*d*	George Evill	Do.
Do	3⅛*d.* to 5½*d*	Horrockses, Miller & Co	London.
Do	3⅛*d.* to 4½*d*	John Hawkins & Co	Do.
American calico, "fruit loom"	5½*d*		
Gray cotton	2*d.* to 3⅛*d*	Palmer, Walley & Co	Manchester.
Gray drillings	2⅝*d.* to 3⅞*d*	A. &. S. Henry & Co	Do.
Colored prints	1⅞*d.* to 4¼*d*	do	Do.
Do	3½*d.* to 4*d*	John Mitchell & Co	Glasgow.
Do	2½*d.* to 3½*d*	Rylands & Sons	Manchester.
Do	3⅜*d.* to 4⅜*d*	Pawson & Co	London.
Do	17*s.* per 50 yards	McNair, Greenhow & Co	Do.
Cashmere prints	3*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Manchester.
Printed cretonnes, "French"	10*d.* to 24*d*	George Benbow	London.
Colored cotton trowserings	6½*d.* to 16*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Do.
Shepherd plaid trowserings	2½*d.* to 10*d*	do	Do.
Colored, striped, and checked drills	5½*d.* to 2*s.* 1*d*	do	Do.
Nainsook muslins (20-yard pieces)	3*s.* 1*d.* to 4*s.* 4*d*	Henry Mann & Co	Manchester.
Galatea stripes	3⅜*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Do.
Oxford shirtings (A)	3½*d.* to 4½*d*	do	Do.
Colored dress muslins	3½*d.* to 3⅞*d*	John Mitchell & Co	Glasgow.
White dotted muslins (12-yard pieces)	2*s.* 10*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d*	Gilmour & Wenning	London.
White, check, and fancy striped muslins (20-yard pieces).	3*d.* to 8*d*	Henry Mann & Co	Manchester.
White striped muslins	3⅜*d.* to 4½*d*	McArthur & Farie	Glasgow.
Do	3*d.* to 7½*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Manchester.
White and black stenter book muslins (12-yard pieces).	1*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d*	Gilmour & Winning	Glasgow.
White dress book muslins (12-yard pieces).	2*s.* 3d. to 10*s.* 8*d*	do	Do.
White brilliants	2½*d.* to 3½*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	
White striped fancy muslins	5½*d.* to 7*d*	Warburg & Co	Manchester.
Do	2⅜*d*	Pawson & Co	London.
Ecru, striped, and figured muslins	6½*d.* to 8¾*d*	Henry Mann & Co	Manchester.
White figured piqué	3½*d.* to 4½*d*	do	
White piqué	3½*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Do.
Diamond quilting	6*d.* to 8*d*	Haslan & Co	London.
White damask	3⅜*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Manchester.
Colored batiste, and China quiltings	4*d.* to 8⅜*d*	McAslan & Co	London.
Fleecy lined Marseilles	9*d.* to 12*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Manchester.
Grey swansdown	5*d.* to 10½*d*	do	Do.
White swansdown	5½*d.* to 12½*d*	do	Do.
White corded drills	7½*d.* to 11½*d*	do	Do.
White cotton drills	6½*d.* to 7⅜*d*	do	Do.
White union linens	6*d.* to 12*d*	Grammont Spinning Company.	Belfast.
Brown linens	2*d.* to 6*d*	do	Do.
Brown linen drills	4*d.* to 11*d*	do	Do.
Sprig duck	3⅜*d.* to 3½*d*	McArthur & Farie	
Cotton ticks	3½*d.* to 8⅜*d*	Armitage & Bigbys	Manchester.
Colored silisias	4½*d.* to 5½*d*	A. & S. Henry & Co	Do.
Turkey red	3*d.* to 3½*d*	Jno. Orr Ewing & Co	Glasgow.
Colored bordered handkerchiefs	1*s.* to 2*s.* dozen	McArthur & Farie	Do.
Turkey-red colored handkerchiefs	3*s.* to 3*s.* 1*d*	Jno. Orr Ewing & Co	Do.
Black broadcloths	1*s.* 4*d.*, 2*s.* to 3*s.* 1*d.*	Midgley & Sons	Leeds.
Colored meltons	2*s.* to 2*s.* 9*d*	Rinder & Co	Do.
Brown socks	2*s.* 4*d.* dozen	Morley & Co	London.
White cotton hose	2*s.* 9*d.* dozen	do	Do.

IMPORTS OF COTTON GOODS AND COTTON YARNS INTO BERMUDA.

REPORT BY CONSUL ALLEN, OF HAMILTON.

In compliance with instructions from the Department of State, under date of March 19, 1880, I transmit, by parcel post, samples of such goods as are therein named in as far as I have been able to obtain them, with descriptive list attached.

There are no cotton yarns imported into this colony; not one pound is to be found here; some cotton twine is imported from the United States for fish lines and nets.

About seven-eighths of all the white and brown cottons and calicoes sold here, with a large portion of other cotton goods, are of the manufacture of the United States. The value of the above-named goods annually imported here is estimated at from $70,000 to $100,000. No specific record is kept, as cottons, woolens, silks, &c., are entered at the custom-house as merchandise.

There are no American houses here. J. H. Trinningham & Sons and N. T. Butterfield & Son are the leading dry-goods houses. There are no wholesale dealers here. Charges on merchandise from the United States are 10 cents per cubic foot freight, per steamer, and duty 5 per cent. on the cost, without charges added.

CHAS. M. ALLEN.

HAMILTON, BERMUDA, *July* 14, 1880.

IMPORTS OF COTTON GOODS AND COTTON YARNS INTO HAYTI.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LANGSTON, OF PORT AU PRINCE.

Referring to communication from the Department having reference to the importation and manufacture of cotton yarns in this country, dated March 19, 1880, I have the honor to advise you that such yarns are not imported and manufactured in Hayti.

Cotton goods sold in the markets of this country are manufactured abroad, and as such imported. Cotton yarns are not imported at all.

JOHN MERCER LANGSTON,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Port au Prince, Hayti, July 2, 1880.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF HAYTI.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LANGSTON, OF PORT AU PRINCE.

In studying the commercial relations of the United States with the West India Islands one is especially struck with the fact that while the former country supplies such islands with provisions, it has no such place in connection therewith in the sale of cotton goods as would seem to be natural and inevitable.

Such trade must be regarded as worthy of cultivation. If one consider the amount invested in the provisions sold as indicated and the returns made therefrom, and calls to mind the fact that in these islands cotton fabrics in the very nature of the case must be in constant and large demand, it cannot but be concluded that such trade, properly cared for and reasonably promoted, must prove largely remunerative.

It is claimed that the American manufacturer pays too little attention to the tastes and requirements of such trade as regards these islands. This fact deserves consideration, and should be given due weight in the future operations of the American manufacturer.

Where American cotton fabrics have been introduced, although sometimes being sold at advanced prices, the quality and durability thereof

have so commended them that they have and do maintain themselves in general competition. This is particularly true of American denims.

The population, as to its character and numbers, and the facility of communication between such islands and the United States, in addition to the probable demand mentioned, would seem to add additional force to the opinion that such trade might be maintained with reasonable mutual profits.

As regards the consular jurisdiction of Hayti especially, one of the most intelligent and enterprising merchants of the country has said:

> Manufacturers of the United States pay too little attention to the styles and measurements of goods and the tastes and needs of the country for which they are required for export. Every country has its fashions and tastes, and to these the Manchester manufacturer, with remarkable ability, adapts himself.

Continuing, he says:

> I have visited some of the neighboring West India Islands and have found everywhere varying tastes, and I have found that the Manchester market furnishes to every island what it requires. If we consider that the population is by no means scanty in these islands, and that on account of the climate almost none or very few woolen goods are used, one can form something like a correct idea of the very important trade existing already between Manchester and the West Indies in cotton goods.

In 1878 fair importations could be made to this country from the United States of dry goods, as bleached and colored cottons. Towards the close of 1879, however, American manufacturers, influenced by home trade, increased their prices to such a degree that competition with fabrics of Manchester make was impracticable. Gradually, however, prices were, as regards the goods referred to, lessened, and during the months of July and August of last year such goods could be placed upon the Haytian market advantageously, but even then many difficulties were encountered by merchants making such orders. These difficulties were of two sorts: First, those connected with the style and measurement of the goods as imported; and, secondly, those connected with the refusal of our manufacturers to supply articles according to patterns and measurements required by the trade. For instance, an order for 25,000 yards prints was considered too small a quantity to justify choice of patterns and to regulate the quantity of goods in 25-yard pieces as required by trade in this country. Hence it was necessary, were the goods purchased, to accept them as assorted and prepared for the American trade. On the other hand, it is claimed that English manufacturers would gladly have accepted such an order and would have provided new patterns if required, knowing that a similar quantity could be reordered within reasonable periods, perhaps every second month during the busy season.

It is admitted that as a general rule American cotton goods, bleached or colored, are of good quality; but sometimes it is claimed that the latter vary in quality of material and shade of color. This fact is one of no little importance in connection with the maintenance of the sale of such goods.

It is also said that the fluctuations of prices render the American trade in dry goods difficult in this locality. The merchants claim that prices, with a view to successful dealing in such goods, especially in this country, should be uniform and as fixed as possible; and besides, they claim that in addition to satisfying the common taste in patterns, the required length of the pieces ($12\frac{1}{2}$ and 25 yards) of bleached and printed cotton goods, according to the customs of trade, are indispensable to successful competition of American manufacturers as against English in the trade of this country.

Were it possible for American manufacturers to reduce somewhat and render a little more steady the prices of their goods; were they to give attention to the tastes, the patterns, and measurement of goods required in this country, a large and increasing trade, perhaps as important in its results as that now had in provisions, would, within a very few years, be established in this country, and doubtless in the West Indies generally.

JOHN MERCER LANGSTON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL.
Port au Prince, Hayti, January 29, 1881.

SOUTH AMERICA.

THE IMPORTS OF COTTON GOODS INTO COLON-ASPINWALL.

REPORT BY CONSUL THORINGTON.

In reply to the Department circular of date 19th of March last, I have to state that there are no statistics of any description whatever kept at this port, which renders it very difficult to obtain reliable information of a commercial character. I respectfully submit the following, however, in answer to the several questions subjoined to the aforesaid circular, viz :

To the questions Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12, I have to report that there are no cotton yarns of any kind imported at this port, there being no demand or sale, owing to the climate.

To questions Nos. 13, 14, and 15, samples are inclosed, duly labeled, of American goods; but a very small quantity of English manufacture, if any, is imported here. I have not been able to procure samples.

To No. 16, the charges are estimated to be about 33⅓ per cent. on the cost.

To Nos. 17 and 18, as stated, no yarns are imported here.

To No. 19. There is none.

To No. 20. The articles named herein are imported direct.

To No. 21. The samples inclosed, numbered 1, 2, and 3, were obtained from the firm of Isaacs & Asch, the largest mercantile establishment on the Isthmus, having a house also in New York City, and obtained this date. The prices given are retail, the wholesale being a trifle less. From about 100 cases of No. 1, 200 of No. 2, and 50 of No. 3 per annum are imported of goods of the character of these samples.

To No. 22. I have found no style of goods—novelties in the market—that is deemed worthy of calling attention to.

Referring again to No. 19, I would respectfully suggest that in shipping cotton goods to this country it would be much better to have the pieces made smaller, say from 10 to 24 yards in a piece, instead of from 38 to 50 yards. It would also be preferable to pack in bales instead of boxes.

Several small bales should be packed together, so that upon arrival in South America, where transportation is generally difficult, they could readily be separated and easily packed on horses or men.

The population being composed very largely of negroes, Indians, and Spaniards, anything of the character of print or dress goods, to find a ready sale, should be of varied and gaudy colors. The samples sent are

rather too tame for the market, and this will apply to the whole of South America.

From a small town like this, which is hardly more than a toll-house for the isthmus transit, it is hardly possible to communicate much of interest in a commercial point of view. I trust, however, under the circumstances, that the foregoing will prove satisfactory.

JAMES THORINGTON,
Consul.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES
At Colon-Aspinwall, July 15, 1880.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF BRITISH GUIANA.

REPORT BY CONSUL FIGYELMESEY, OF DEMERARA.

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of circular, dated March 19, 1880, relating to the cotton trade of this colony, and regret at not replying before thereto, as I met with some difficulty in obtaining the required information, as you will find by the inclosures subjoined.

I beg to submit the following replies to questions, as far as I have been able to procure such:

Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. Cotton yarns are never imported into this colony, as there are no factories.

No. 7. Parcels of samples accompanying this bear full particulars as to cost, selling prices (wholesale and retail), lengths, widths. The annual salable quantity cannot be ascertained.

No. 8. Until recently cotton goods were principally imported (made up into cloths) from Great Britain, Glasgow and Manchester manufactures being preferred, but now American goods of every description, such as cotton cloth, or dry goods, furniture, plated ware, iron-mongery, boots and shoes, canvas, glass ware, slates, clocks, bricks, and coals, are largely imported, but through indirect agency.

No. 9. There are no importations of yarns, either of United States or any other manufacture.

No. 10. There are no English commission merchants here who sell yarns.

No. 11. I would recommend Mr. Louis Tengely, of Georgetown, Demerara, an American citizen, who has lately started business as a commission merchant, and takes orders entirely for American goods to a small extent, but should he obtain an agency would take premises advantageously located.

No. 12. Goods are imported both on owners' account and on commission.

No. 13. Samples sent herewith, width and length stated, can give no idea of annual supply.

No. 14. Samples sent and particulars stated.

No. 15. The same.

No. 16. The estimated charges for commission on the other side for purchasing, freight, marine insurance, and duty here (5 per cent. advalorem), are about 20 per cent., commission here would be 5 per cent., and 5 per cent. more would cover all charges from the United States, and 15 per cent. from England.

No. 17. There are three countries in this colony, viz, Demerara, Essequebo, Berdice, in all of which the imports are consumed.

No. 18. Answered in Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

No. 19. None at present to report.

No. 20. I may here state that most American goods arrive here (such as leather and dry goods) by way of England, instead of being sent direct from the United States.

No. 21. As each pattern bears a label with description, I hope they will be found sufficiently explanatory.

No. 22. This can be done when more definite arrangements are made; to do it now may mislead, as an article may be in demand with the prospect of its continuing so for three months longer, but if sent after that time it may no longer be in demand.

I herewith also have the honor to subjoin copies of answers that I received in applying for the foregoing information.

Letter No. 1, from James Lovegrove for a firm who could not give me any information.

No. 2, from the comptroller of customs, the same.

No. 3, from Smith Brothers & Co., merchants. Of this firm I procured some samples, but they did not seem inclined to give any information.

No. 4, from Bookes Brothers & Co. These merchants furnished me with some information, but not fully, and I also obtained some samples from them.

Messrs. Herrman Conrad & Co., merchants, furnished me with some samples, but declined to give any information.

From E. D'Olveysa I obtained some samples and information.

PH. FIGYELMESY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Demerara, June 28, 1880.

[Four inclosures in the foregoing report.]

LETTERS FROM DEMERARA MERCHANTS TO CONSUL FIGYELMESY.

1.—*Mr. Lovegrove to Consul Figyelmesy.*

GEORGETOWN, *June* 5, 1880.

DEAR SIR: I have carefully perused the document sent me, but do not see my way to answer the several questions therein.

We do not grow or import yarns to manufacture, nor am I aware that any is imported. As to the other questions in regard to English and American goods, you could get full particulars from the customs as to quality and values much better than I could inform you.

Patterns of goods you could procure in small quantities from any store in town, in short lengths, such as you may require.

Regretting my inability to supply the information sought,
I remain, yours, very truly,

JAMES LOVEGROVE.

Colonel FIGYELMESY,
United States Consul.

2.—*The Controller of Customs to Consul Figyelmesy.*

GEORGETOWN, DEMERARA, *June* 5, 1880.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 3d instant, in regard to certain information required by you for the United States Government.

2. I should have replied at once to this letter, but found it necessary to refer the same to my book-keeper, who reports that it is impossible to furnish the information

required, as linens, cottons, and woolen stuffs are kept under one head; yarn, thread, and cord being entered amongst other articles of that description under the head of haberdashery.

I regret extremely not being able to comply with your request, as I am always most ready and anxious to supply your government with any information in my power.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

HUGH W. AUSTIN,
Controller of Customs.

Colonel FIGYELMESY,
United States Consul.

3.—*Smith Brothers & Co. to Consul Figyelmesy.*

GEORGETOWN, DEMERARA, *June* 9, 1880.

SIR: We herewith beg to return the questions forwarded to us with following remarks:

Questions referring to yarns imported do not require answers, as it is well known that no cotton goods are manufactured in this colony.

Regarding quantities of manufacture goods imported and sold, there being no published account of these, we are unable to give replies. As to the kind of goods wanted and salable in this market, we consider a matter of experience and respectfully decline answers.

We remain, sir, yours, faithfully,

SMITH BROTHERS & CO.

Col. PHILIP FIGYELMESY,
Consul at Demerara for United States of America.

4.—*Messrs. Booker Brothers & Co. to Consul Figyelmesy.*

GEORGETOWN, DEMERARA, *June* 21, 1880.

DEAR SIR: Your circular asking for certain information as to the dry-goods trade in this colony has had our careful consideration, and we now have to state as follows:

Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. None imported, no factories of any kind, except sugar, in the colony.

Question 8. British manufactures much preferred to any other, principally from Glasgow and Manchester.

Questions 9, 10. None imported.

Questions 11, 12. Samples of gray and white cotton sent with prices marked; can give no idea of annual requirements.

Question 13. Samples sent.

Question 14. Twenty per cent. covers all charges from United States; fifteen per cent. from England.

Question 15. Georgetown principally, and New Amsterdam, whence small supplies are drawn for the country districts; can give no idea of numbers or quantities required.

Question 16. None imported.

Question 17. All manufactured goods imported direct.

We have much pleasure in handing you herewith as many of the required samples as we are able to supply, and trusting same will be found of use.

We remain, dear sir, yours, truly,

BOOKER BROTHERS & CO.

Col. PHILIP FIGYELMESY,
Consul for United States of America.

BRAZIL.

IMPORTS OF COTTON YARNS AND COTTON GOODS INTO BAHIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL EDES.

No. 1. No cotton yarns have been imported into this consular district from England or any other country.

No. 2. No importations made.

No. 3. No importations made.

No. 4. No importations made.

No. 5. No importations made.

No. 6. No importations made, the goods come out already manufactured.

No. 7. There are no cloths made here from imported yarns, the samples forwarded herewith contain specimens of the cloth sent out manufactured, numbered and marked with prices, length and width, as required. The annual salable quantity cannot be given with any certainty, as it varies considerably and depends a great deal upon the financial condition of the market. The entire number of packages and of yards of cotton goods, however, imported from Great Britain during the past three years is herewith transmitted.

No. 8. There are no importations of yarns of any quality.

No. 9. There are no importations of yarns manufactured in the United States.

No. 10. There are no English commission merchants in this port who receive and sell foreign yarns.

No. 11. There are no American commission merchants located in this port. The following are the names of responsible English and foreign houses engaged in selling the manufactured goods, most of whom import more or less from the United States: Yates & Co., Condéfilho & Co., Dutton Brothers & Co., Vaughan, McNair & Co., Cramer, Frey & Co., Bruderer & Co., Stevenson & Co., and others.

No. 12. There are no English yarns or cotton goods consigned to this market to be sold, except to a very small extent in cotton goods. The goods are in nearly all cases purchased in England and owned by the parties selling them.

No. 13. Samples are herewith transmitted, marked, numbered, and described in the annexed sample list of gray and brown cotton cloth, Nos. 7, 8, 9 to 14, with duties and prices mentioned. The annual salable quantity cannot be given with any accuracy. The prices marked are all subject to a discount of 23 per cent. for cash, such being the custom of all importing houses of this place. The jobbers of the goods who sell to the country and to the smaller dealers upon long credits, say from 6 to 18 months, obtain the same prices with a much smaller discount, or with probably none, according to the extent of the credit. The small dealers get about the same prices, giving only a small credit. All the prices, therefore, marked upon the samples and sample list herewith, are subject to a discount of 23 per cent.

No. 14. Samples are forwarded herewith of bleached cotton sheetings and shirtings, English manufacture, with particulars marked and described as required in sample list from Nos. 15 to 19.

No. 15. Samples are also forwarded of dyed, colored, and printed goods of English and American manufacture, mentioned and described in sample list under Nos. 1, 2, 3, 7, 20 to 38.

No. 16. The charges incurred upon shipment of goods to this market would be more or less as follows: Freight uncertain, probably 30 cents per cubic foot; porterage, 5 milreis per package = 225 cents; fire insurance, ½ per cent; interest, 10 per cent. per annum; warehouse rent, 1 per cent.; commission, 5 per cent.; guarantee, 2½ per cent.; but these charges may vary according to agreement.

No. 17. The manufactured goods consumed in this consular district are imported only into the ports of Bahia and Aracajor; at the latter place to a very small extent indeed.

The quantity of cotton goods imported from Great Britain into this consular district amounted during the year—

1878 to	19,950 packages=yards	37,795,720
1879 to	21,138 packages=yards	40,232,920
1880, to May, to	10,369 packages=yards	19,293,350
For 2 years and 6 months	51,457 packages=yards	97,321,990

During the same period there were imported from the United States, of blue drills and cotton goods, as follows:

Year 1878	1,287 packages.
Year 1879	1,737 packages.
Year 1880 to May 30	1,125 packages.

Fully two-thirds of which were blue drills.

No. 18. There are no foreign yarns imported here or manufactured in this consular district.

No. 19. The American cotton goods imported into this market are not suitable to the requirements of the trade; although of excellent quality, they are made up in pieces too long and not proper width, and consequently are not sought after. To sell in this market, it is necessary that the goods come out in pieces of 29 to 30 inches in width, and a length never running more than 24 to 25 meters to the piece. The width of the fold ought to be 10 inches; the cloth is too heavy, and, to pay less duties, a lighter one should be used, such as is called a Spanish or Mexican cloth. The madopolams ought to come in a cloth not counting more than 15 x 15 picks in a square of 5 millimeters, in pieces 29 to 30 inches wide, and containing 24 yards only.

No. 20. All manufactured goods are imported direct into this consular district.

No. 21. A sample list, describing, as required, the samples transmitted, is herewith forwarded. The prices stated are subject to a discount of 23 per cent. The duty is the actual amount paid at the custom-house; there is, however, an additional charge made by the government of $\frac{1}{15}$ to $\frac{1}{50}$ of the duties collected for storage, according to the length of time the goods remain in the custom-house.

RICHD. A. EDES,
United States Consul.

BAHIA, *June* 20, 1880.

DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF SAMPLES WITH CONSUL EDES'S REPORT.

No. 1. American blue drills, sold by Condéfiilho & Co., at 580 reis per yard (26.6 cents); discount, 23 per cent., in pieces of 50 to 60 yards each, sold in quantities; width 25½ to 26 inches; duty 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 2. Drillings sold by Antonio Pereir de Carvalho, at 480 reis per meter (22 cents); discount, 23 per cent., in pieces of 46 to 50 yards each, sold in small quantities, about 50 bales per year; width, 25½ to 26 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 3. Victoria lawns, sold by Santos Mira & Co., at 4,300 reis per piece (197.8 cents per piece); discount, 23 per cent., in pieces of 10 yards each, packed in lots of 10 pieces; sold in small quantities, say 800 to 1,000 pieces per year; width, 30 inches; duty, 3,750 reis per kilo (168.7 cents per kilo).

No. 4. Victoria lawns, sold by Anto Pera de Carvalho, at 4,200 reis

per piece (193.2 cents); discount, 23 per cent., in pieces of 10 yards each, packed in lots of 10 pieces; sold in small quantities; width, 30 inches; duty, 3,750 reis per kilo (168.7 cents per kilo).

No. 5. Victoria lawns, sold by Bruderer & Co., at 5,000 reis per piece (230 cents per piece); discount, 23 per cent., in pieces of 10 yards each, packed in lots of 10 pieces; sold in small quantities, say 800 to 900 pieces a year, according to demand; width, 30 inches; duty, 3,750 reis per kilo (168.7 cents per kilo).

No. 6. Victoria lawns, sold by Cramer, Frey & Co., at 4,400 reis per piece (204.4 cents per piece); discount, 23 per cent, in pieces of 10 yards each, packed in lots of 10 pieces; sold in small quantities; width, 30 inches; duty, 3,750 reis per kilo (168.7 cents per kilo).

No. 7. Striped regattas, sold by Lonza & Co., at 520 reis per yard (23.9 cents); discount, 23 per cent., in pieces of 40 to 50 yards each; sold in very small quantities, say 600 pieces per year in bales of 50 pieces each; width, 25½ to 26 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 8. Cocquellas No. 8, sold by Teixaira, Hasselmann & Co., at 680 reis per vara (30.6 cents); discount, 23 per cent., in pieces of 60 yards each; sold in small quantities, in bales of 30 pieces each, about 15 bales per year; width, 25 inches; duty, 1,560 reis per kilo (74.25 cents per kilo).

No. 9. Fine gray cloth, sold by Yates & Co., at 235 reis per yard (10.5 cents per yard); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in large quantities, in bales of 10 pieces each, 24 yards each piece; width, 29½ inches; duty, 600 reis per kilo (27 cents per kilo).

No. 10. Grays, sold by Cramer, Frey & Co., at 240 reis per yard (10.8 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in large quantities, in bales of 100 to 120 pieces each, 24 yards each piece; width, 31 inches; duty, 600 reis per kilo (27 cents per kilo).

No. 11. Grays, sold by Anto Gomes dos Santos, at 240 reis per yard (10.8 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in quantities, in bales of 100 pieces, 24 yards each piece; width, 31½ inches; duty, 600 reis per kilo (27 cents per kilo).

No. 12. Grays, sold by Dutton Bros. & Co., at 300 reis per yard (13.5 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in quantities, in bales of 100 pieces each, 24 yards each piece; width, 31 to 31½ inches; duty, 600 reis per kilo (27 cents per kilo).

No. 13. Grays, sold by Vaughan, McNair & Co., at 260 reis per yard (11.7 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in small quantities, in bales of 100 pieces each, 24 yards each piece; width, 32 to 32½ inches; duty, 600 reis per kilo (27 cents per kilo).

No. 14. Grays, sold by Santos, Mira & Co., at 240 reis per yard (10.8 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in small quantities, in bales of 100 yards each, 24 yards each piece; width, 31 to 31½ inches; duty, 600 reis per kilo (27 cents per kilo).

No. 15. Madopolams, sold by Yates & Co., at 6,200 reis per piece (279 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold largely in bales of 100 piece each, 24 yards each piece; width, 31 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 16. Madopolams, sold by Cramer, Frey & Co., at 8,400 reis per piece (378 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in small lots, in cases of 50 to 100 pieces each, 24 yards each piece; width, 33 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 17. Madopolams, sold by Fernandes Irmao & Co., at 6,200 reis per piece (279 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold largely in bales of 100

pices each, 24 yards each piece; width, 31 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 18. Madopolams, sold by Vaughan, McNair & Co., at 7,800 reis per piece (351 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold largely in bales of 100 pieces, each piece 24 yards; width, 33½ inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 19. Madopolams, sold by Meister, Zoll & Co., at 5,800 reis per piece (261 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in quantities, in bales of 100 pieces each, 24 yards each piece; width, 31 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 20. Chintzes, sold by Vaughan, McNair & Co., at 460 reis per meter (20.7 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; false colors, in case of 60 pieces each, 24 meters each piece, salable variety of patterns according to taste; width, 28 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 21. Furnitures, sold by Anto Gomes, dos Santos, & Co., at 560 reis per meter (25.2 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in small lots, in cases of 50 pieces each, 23 to 24 meters each, variety of patterns; width, 28 to 29 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 22. Turkey reds, sold by Cramer, Frey & Co., at 580 reis per meter (26.1 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in small lots, in cases of 60 pieces each, 23 to 24 meters each piece, variety of patterns; width, 28 to 29 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 23. Embossed red prints, sold by Antonio Pereira de Carvalho, at 500 reis per meter (22.5 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in very small quantities, in cases of 60 pieces each, 23½ meters each piece, variety of patterns; width, 30 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 24. Green prints, sold by Antonio Pera de Carvalho, at 480 reis per meter (21.6 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in small quantities, variety of patterns, in cases of 60 pieces each, 24 meters each piece; width, 29 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 25. Yellow prints, sold by Santos Mira & Co., at 540 reis per meter (24.3 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in small quantities, in cases of 60 pieces each, 24 meters each piece; width, 29 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 26. Cotton drills, sold by Valentine Sonza, Conea & Co., at 900 reis per yard (40.5 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in quantities, in cases of 30 pieces, 30 to 40 yards each piece; width, 28 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 27. Cotton drills, sold by Fernandes Irmao & Co., at 1,300 to 1,400 reis per yard (58.5 cents at 63 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in quantities, in cases of 30 pieces, variety of patterns, 30 to 40 yards each piece; width, 28 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 28. Cotton drills, sold by Meister, Zoll & Co., at 1,000 reis and 900 reis per yard (45 at 40.5 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in quantities, in cases of 30 pieces each, variety of patterns, 30 to 40 yards each piece; width, 28 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 29. Cotton drills, sold by Yates & Co., at 1,300 to 1,400 reis per yard (58.5 cents at 63 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in quantities, in cases of 30 pieces, variety of patterns, 30 to 40 yards each piece; width, 28 inches; duty, 900 reis per kilo (40.5 cents per kilo).

No. 30. White poplins, sold by Anto Pereira de Carvalho, at 600 reis per yard (27 cents); discount, 23 per cent; sold in very small quantities, in cases of 24 pieces each, variety of patterns, 60 yards each piece; width, 20 inches; duty, 2,250 reis per kilo (101.25 cents per kilo.)

No. 31. Purple prints, sold by sundry persons, at 440 to 460 reis per meter (20.2 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold largely in cases of 60

pieces each, variety of patterns, each piece 24 meters; width, 31 inches; duty 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 32. Purple prints, sold by sundry persons, at 420 reis per yard (18.9 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in cases of 60 pieces each, variety of patterns, 24 meters each piece; width, 31 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 33. Embossed white prints, sold by sundry persons, at 420 reis per meter (18.9 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in cases of 60 pieces each, variety of patterns; width, 30 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 34. White flowery prints, sold by sundry persons, at 500 reis per meter (45 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in cases of 60 pieces each, variety of patterns, 24 meters each piece; sold largely; width, 30 inches; duty, 1,800 reis, (81 cents per kilo).

No. 35. Fancy prints, sold by sundry persons, at 500 to 520 reis per meter, (22.5 to 23.4 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; in cases of 60 pieces each, variety of patterns; sold largely; width, 31 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 36. Madder plates, sold by sundry persons, at 400 reis per meter, (18 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold largely, in cases of 60 pieces each, variety of patterns; width, 28 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 37. Blue and white sold by sundry persons, at 400 reis per meter (18 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold in cases of 60 pieces each, 28 meters each piece; width, 28½ inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

No. 38. Check prints, sold by sundry persons, at 480 reis per meter (21.6 cents); discount, 23 per cent.; sold largely, in cases of 60 pieces each, 28 meters each piece; width, 28 to 29 inches; duty, 1,800 reis per kilo (81 cents per kilo).

RICHD. A. EDES,
United States Consul.

BAHIA, *June* 20, 1880.

IMPORTATION OF COTTON MANUFACTURES INTO PERNAMBUCO.

REPORT BY CONSUL CONE.

PERNAMBUCO.

The circular from the Secretary of State, dated March 19, 1880, was received May 27. My reasons for not answering sooner are that the first part of the intervening time was fully occupied by a press of consular duties, and the last by a temporary illness, which prevented my attending to any other matters except official business connected with the consulate. I have gathered some facts and samples, which I transmit herewith.

Cotton goods.—From the annual report issued by our commercial association for 1877–'78 we note that the value of cotton goods imported during the twelve months is reis 6,409,362,258. This, I think, is underestimated, and that $5,000,000 is nearer to the mark.

Yarns.—No warp or weft yarn is imported into this market, or rather in such small quantities that it is not regarded as an article of trade. The yarn referred to is made up into cloth before importing, say shirtings, sheetings, domestics raw, cambrics, prints, drills, &c. This fully answers all the questions in regard to yarn.

Importers.—The English houses are Browns & Co., Adamson, Howie & Co., Latham, Nicolls & Co. American there are none. Other importers are French, Swiss, Portuguese, and Brazilians. Browns & Co.'s sales of dry goods on their own account during the twelve months mentioned above amounted to reis 1,293,362 $990. They also do a large business in consignments, both of cotton and linen goods, jute, Hessians, &c. The same firm also do an indent business, receiving orders for goods from the native dealers, for which purpose they have a special show-room for patterns and samples.

Grays.—Gray domestics, known here as "Algodæ zinho," have a large consumption, which is estimated at 2,400,000 yards of all qualities. Stiffening is essential (see samples). Width, from 24 to 32 inches; pieces in lengths of 20 yards, packed in bales of 100 pieces (sometimes 150); duties, 400 reis per kilogram, with 50 per cent. additional, &c., as per pro forma account sales.

Whites.—Madopollams (merino branca). This is a staple article of largest consumption; the quantity is estimated at 5,000,000 yards per annum. A quantity of starch and filling is necessary, as will be seen by samples herewith. Width, from 24 to 33 inches; pieces, in lengths of 24 yards; packed in bales of 100 pieces. Fine qualities with French finish in cases of 50 pieces. Duties, 600 reis per kilogram, plus 50 per cent., &c.

Prints.—Moreins estampados, commonly known as "chitas," require to be starched and glazed for general consumption. There is a very large outlet for purple pads, dark and light grounds, and fancies. Widths, from 27–28 to 31–32 inches; pieces generally of an average length of 24 meters, sometimes in double pieces; packed in cases of 60 pieces; duties, 1,200 reis per kilogram, plus 50 per cent., &c.

Regattas.—Striped drills (algadâo riscado) sold in very fair quantities. Width, 26–28 inches; pieces of about 43 yards; packed in bales of 50 pieces; duties, 600 reis per kilogram, plus 50 per cent., &c.

Blue drills.—Both light and heavy, but extra stiffened, have a good outlet if of American manufacture. Not necessary for particulars of this. Duties, same as on regattas.

Charges.—I inclose *pro forma* account sales, which will give all particulars excepting freight, which, of course, fluctuates, and is included in shippers' invoices. The goods especially designated are the most salable of each description.

Invoices.—Complete invoices, with costs and charges on all consignments, will be required, to guide in calculations of "stand-ins."

Terms of sale are 30 days, less 13 per cent. discount, or four months, with 10 per cent. discount.

Market.—This market supplies the greater part of those of Maceio, Parahiba, Rio Grande do Norte, and Ceará, including the interior of the provinces under same name.

The greatest obstacle to the introduction of American cotton goods is the duties, which are levied upon the weight, as you will see by the *pro forma* account sales herewith.

American goods are acknowledged to be of a better quality, but so much heavier that the extra duties consume the profits.

The English and French goods are much lighter and filled with starch, &c., and given a fine glossy appearance, which takes the fancy of the people and makes them more salable, as well as the less duties make them more profitable to the merchants.

The Brazilians generally are captivated by the fine appearance rather than real worth, not only in articles of merchandise.

The samples transmitted herewith were furnished by Messrs. Browns

& Co. Should any manufacturers in the United States desire to open business relations with this city, Messrs. Browns & Co. would be a suitable house for them to negotiate with, as they import dry goods of all descriptions.

ANDREW CONE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Pernambuco, August 9, 1880.

Pro forma account sales of 10 *cases prints received per* ———, *and sold by order and for account and risk of* ——— ———.

Terms: cash in 30 days, less 13 per cent.

Cases.	Pieces.				
10.	600.	14,400 white ground prints, at 380 reis		5,472,000	
10.	600.	14,400 dark ground prints, at 400 reis.....		5,760,000	
					11,232,000
		Charges:			
		To duties on 925 kilos, at $200.....	1,110,000		
		Augmento, 50 per cent.....	555,000		
			1,665,000		
		Armazenagem and capatazie.....	19,300		
		Consumo provincial	137,200		
				1,821,500	
		Dispatching fee, 1 per cent.....		18,210	
		Interest on duties 1 month, 1 per cent.....		18,210	
		Bill stamps, $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent.....		16,850	
		Negro hire, 3$000 per package		60,000	
		Fire insurance, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.....		56,160	
		Telegrams, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.....		28,080	
		Warehouse rent, 1 per cent		112,320	
		Commission and guarantee, 5 per cent		561,600	
		Discount, 13 per cent		1,460,160	
					4,153,090
					Reis 7,078,090

PERNAMBUCO, *July* 28, 1880.

Pro forma account sales of 5 *bales regattas received per* ———, *and sold by order and for account and risk of* ——— ———.

Terms: cash in 30 days, less 13 per cent.

Bales.	Pieces.				
5.	250.	10,750 yards regattas, $\frac{BT}{O}$ at 350 reis			3,762,500
		Charges:			
		To duties on 1,100 kilos, at 600 reis..	660,000		
		Augmento, 50 per cent	330,000		
			990,000		
		Armazenagem and capatazie.....	12,900		
		Consumo provincial	81,580		
				1,084,480	
		Dispatching fee, 1 per cent		10,840	
		Interest on duties 1 month, 1 per cent		10,840	
		Bill stamps, $\frac{1}{10}$ per cent.....		5,640	
		Negro hire, 3$000 per package.....		15,000	
		Fire insurance, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.....		18,810	
		Telegrams, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.....		9,410	
		Warehouse rent, 1 per cent		37,630	
		Commission and guarantee, 5 per cent.....		188,120	
		Discount, 13 per cent.....		489,130	
					1,869,900
					Reis 1,892,600

PERNAMBUCO, *July* 28, 1880.

Pro forma account sales of 20 bales domestics received per ———, and sold by order for account and risk of ——— ———.

Terms: cash in 30 days, less 13 per cent.

Bales.	Pieces.				
20.	2,000.	40,000 yards domestic, "Touro," at 200 reis			8,000,000
		Charges:			
		To duties on 3,900 kilos, at 400 reis	1,560,000		
		Augmento, 50 per cent	780,000		
			2,340,000		
		Armazenagem and capatazie	32,600		
		Consumo provincial	192,820		
				2,565,420	
		Dispatching fee, 1 per cent		25,650	
		Interest on duties 1 month, 1 per cent		25,650	
		Bill stamps, $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent		12,000	
		Negro hire 3$000 per package		60,000	
		Fire insurance, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent		40,000	
		Telegrams, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent		20,000	
		Warehouse rent, 1 per cent		80,000	
		Commission and guarantee, 5 per cent		400,000	
		Discount, 13 per cent		1,040,000	
					4,268,730
					Reis 3,731,270

PERNAMBUCO, *July* 28, 1880.

Pro forma account sales of 20 bales Madop'ms received per ———, and sold by order and for account and risk of ——— ———.

Terms: cash in 30 days, less 13 per cent.

Bales.	Pieces.				
20.	2,000.	White Madap'ms Cruz da Victoria, at 5,000 reis			10,000,000
		Charges:			
		To duties on 3,060 kilos, at 600 reis	1,836,000		
		Augmento, 50 per cent	918,000		
			2,754,000		
		Armazenagem and capatazia	35,520		
		Consumo provincial	226,930		
				3,016,450	
		Despatching fee, 1 per cent		30,160	
		Interest on duties 1 month, 1 per cent		30,160	
		Bill stamps, $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent		15,000	
		Negro hire, 3$000 per bale		60,000	
		Fire insurance, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent		50,000	
		Telegrams, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent		25,000	
		Warehouse rent, 1 per cent		100,000	
		Commission and guarantee, 5 per cent		500,000	
		Discount, 13 per cent		1,300,000	
					5,126,770
					Reis 4,873,230

PERNAMBUCO, *July* 28, 1880.

Particulars of patterns sent per Consul Cone.

No.	Width.	Description.	Market value.	Rate of duty.	Remarks.
	Inches.		*Reis.*	*Reis.*	
1	26	Gray domestic "Touro".....per yard..	220	75	Weighing 230 kilos per bale of 100 pieces.
2	25	Gray domestic "Boar".....do....	200	60	Weighing 200 kilos per bale of 100 pieces.
3	28 to 29	White "Cruz da Victoria"..per piece..	5,000	1,525	Weighing 153 kilos per bale.
4	33	White "Lion Crest".....do....	6,500	1,928	Weighing 189 kilos per bale.
5	31 to 31½	White *French finish* "Força".....do....	5,800	1,920	Weighing 174 kilos per bale.
6	26 to 26½	Regattas, $\frac{BT}{O}$ ..... per yard..	350	100	Weighing 220 kilos per bale of 2,150 yards.
7	30	Prints, purple pads.....per meter....	460	150	
8	28	Prints, light ground .....do....	380	137	
9	28 to 29	Prints, dark ground.....do....	400	131	Should have more finish
10		Prints, steame—fancy.....do....	300	138	False colors.

Pernambuco, July 28, 1880.

COTTON IMPORTS INTO THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

REPORT BY CONSUL BAKER, OF BUENOS AYRES.

I have already acknowledged the receipt of your circular letter, requesting consular officers, in the interest of the cotton manufacturers of the United States, to "obtain such facts as are within their reach in regard to the trade of foreign countries in the various fabrics of that article," especially the article of cotton yarns, and to this end inclosing a series of questions intended to secure very full and accurate information upon the character and amount of the cotton trade of the Argentine Republic, with particular reference to its trade in foreign yarns.

It appears from a tabular statement which you also inclose that the export of cotton yarns from England for the year 1878 amounted to 250,838,600 pounds, valued at $63,366,356.70; and the greater part of your questions has reference to that portion of this yarn which may have been imported into the Argentine Republic.

In reply to these interrogatories, I have to inform you that no manufactories of cotton have yet been established in this country. I do not think there is a single loom in any of the provinces; and the returns of Argentine trade and commerce for the year named show that not a pound of the cotton yarn described by you was entered at any of the custom-houses. The only cotton yarns which find a market here are manufactured threads for sewing purposes. Though these scarcely seem to come within the scope of the information you seek to obtain, it may not, however, be out of place to give the value of the cotton thread annually imported into this country, and the nations which contribute to the import.

The following table shows the value of the cotton thread imported during the last five years:

Where from.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.
England	$11,808	$24,322	$42,795	$41,904	$43,900
France	2,770	1,031	4,457	1,366	2,062
Germany	1,061	.....	.....	192	642
Chili	7,870	4,802	8,059	12,109	7,443
Uruguay	553	3,363	3,404	2,874	2,554
United States	1,721	1,031	272	3,224	460
Italy	.....	.....	.....	1,839	.....
Other countries	.....	.....	.....	320	2,332
In transit	5,747	9,986	25,358	16,313	14,519
Total	31,530	44,535	84,345	80,141	73,913

The amounts above put down to Chili and Uruguay of course do not legitimately belong to those countries, having only passed through them to the upper provinces of the Argentine Republic. The greater part most probably were original shipments from England, so that about two-thirds of the manufactured cotton threads consumed by the Argentine people is the product of Great Britain; while the United States, in spite of its immense annual cotton crop, only sends three thousand dollars' worth in 1878, and four hundred and sixty dollars' worth in 1879!

In proceeding to give the information requested in the remainder of your interrogatories, I would repeat, as there is not a cotton mill in the country, that all the cotton fabrics consumed in the Argentine Republic are of foreign manufacture. In some of the upper provinces there is a kind of cotton cloth made by hand, for the use of the Gauchos and Indian half-breeds, but it is exceedingly crude and unfinished in its appearance. The Argentine trade returns give the following figures in regard to the importation of cotton fabrics during the last five years:

Imports of cotton fabrics from 1875 to 1879 inclusive.

Year.	Meters.	Value.	Kilograms.	Value.	Total value.
1875	43, 469, 073	$4, 102, 270	.....	.....	$4, 102, 270
1876	19, 232, 278	1, 892, 266	1, 485, 664	$1, 096, 854	2, 989, 120
1877	28, 379, 241	2. 750, 428	3, 211, 604	2, 182, 934	4, 933, 362
1878	32, 805, 590	3, 406, 425	2, 992, 192	2, 149. 222	5, 555, 647
1879	11, 210, 100	1, 321, 385	4, 760, 170	3, 892, 467	5, 213, 852

The following are the amounts and values, in detail, of the cotton fabrics imported from each country during the year 1878, to wit:

Imports of cottons into the Argentine Republic, 1878.

Where from.	Amount of meters.	Value.	Amount of kilograms.	Value.
Germany	687, 815	$90. 819	31, 678	$18, 135
Belgium	898, 886	131, 850	26, 368	15, 334
Brazil	4, 640	576	.....	.....
Bolivia	368	43	53	33
Chili	1, 762, 102	178, 683	177, 651	120, 530
Spain	5, 870	901	1, 190	714
Uruguay	1, 409, 953	103, 679	73, 468	48. 024
United States	558, 433	66, 881	56, 793	39, 031
France	700, 056	81, 441	3, 472	2, 415
England	18, 217, 070	1, 897, 866	1, 759, 553	1, 285, 283
Italy	545, 533	51, 419	3, 118	1, 870
Paraguay	1, 196	108	.....	.....
Other nations	202, 706	19, 812	29, 756	20, 158
Transit	7, 819, 902	782, 347	829, 092	597, 6s5
Total	32, 805, 590	3, 406, 425	2, 992, 192	2, 149, 222

Reducing the number of meters to yards, we have about 37,726,500 yards, whose official custom-house value was $3,406,425; and reducing the kilograms to pounds we have about 5,580,000 pounds, whose custom-house value was $2,149,222; total value of cotton fabrics imported during the year 1878, $5,555,647. Of this amount England furnished $3,183,149; to which may be added what is in the above table credited to "transit," Chili and Uruguay (the original shipments being from England), making a total of $5,014,097 furnished by England, and leaving only $541,550 as the amount furnished by all other countries.

The figures for 1879 show but little improvement so far as the United States are concerned, and still more decidedly exhibit the supremacy of the English cotton trade. They are as follows:

Imports of cottons into the Argentine Republic—1879.

Where from.	Amount of meters.	Value.	Amount of kilograms.	Value.
Germany	363, 636	$52, 617	218. 448	$163. 126
Belgium	732, 611	110, 083	143. 832	111, 399
Bolivia	24	3	4	4
Brazil	3, 025	605	.....	.....
Chili	224, 540	23, 682	187, 163	159. 376
Uruguay	397, 707	45. 297	170, 445	133, 993
United States	424, 678	48. 746	87. 445	67. 018
France	520, 260	85, 223	36, 037	34, 257
England	7, 755, 848	863. 444	2, 829, 768	2, 328. 111
Italy	112, 622	12, 240	56, 502	49, 947
Other nations	94, 969	11. 680	28, 544	24, 223
Transit	580, 680	67, 769	1, 001, 991	821, 013
Total	11, 210, 100	1, 321, 385	4, 760, 170	3, 892, 467

Putting the above number of meters into yards, we have for the year 1879 about 12,947,700 yards, whose official custom-house value was $1,321,385; and reducing the above number of kilograms to pounds we have about 10,330,000 pounds, whose custom-house value was $3,892,467; total value of cotton fabrics imported into the Argentine Republic for the above year, $5,213,852. Of the above amounts England furnished about 8,960,000 yards and 6,150,000 pounds, whose aggregate value was $3,181,559. To this may properly be added, for the reasons already stated, the amounts credited to "transit," Chili and Uruguay; making a total of cotton fabrics furnished by England to the Argentine Republic in 1879 of $4,432,689, leaving only $781,163 as the value of the cottons furnished by all other nations.

It will be observed that the value of the cotton fabrics received from the United States in 1879 shows a small increase on that of the previous year, though the increase is not so decided as that of Belgium and Germany.

The circular of the Department desires me to send samples of all such cotton fabrics of English, European, or American manufacture as find a sale in the Argentine Republic. I have delayed marking up this report in the hope of being able to comply with this request, but I find that it is quite impossible for me to do so. I have offered pecuniary inducements to parties interested in this special trade to obtain samples of such fabrics as are specified in the circular, but, after a few ineffectual efforts, they have abandoned the attempt as impracticable. In the first place, they explain that, owing to the immense variety of the cotton manufactures, all of more or less repute, which are imported into this country, it would be an undertaking beyond their power, unless extraordinary inducements were offered, to secure a full line of samples; and in the second place I would add that there is a general reluctance on the part of importers and dealers to furnish samples for the purpose for which these are asked. And very naturally. Those who have built up

a market here for certain marks and styles of goods wish to retain the exclusive control of that trade, which they cannot expect to do so well if they offer others an opportunity to enter the market with goods of the same textures, qualities, specialties, marks, &c.

I would state, however, that in regard to the widths and lengths in which piece goods are put up, there is about the same variety here that the market of New York City exhibits. In the city trade will be found in equal favor the same quality of cotton fabrics having various widths, though 32 inches is the favorite; but the goods are generally put up in pieces of 20 yards each, that size having the preference with merchants and people of the interior towns and country. These and other details, however, of the Argentine trade in cotton fabrics must be learned by an actual personal experience. They cannot be embraced in a report like this. And I would repeat a suggestion heretofore made by me to the Department, that our American cotton manufacturers should combine together and send an agent to this country to obtain such exact information in regard to the wants and demands of the markets of the river Plate as will give them an intelligent idea of the situation, the kinds of fabrics best suited to this trade, the manner of doing business here, the terms on which shipments shall be made, with such other points as an approved expert, and no one else, fully understands, at the same time making the acquaintance of houses best prepared to do this particular line of business with the United States. This agent should bring with him full samples of such lines as our manufacturers are now furnishing the trade. Out of these samples the merchants here will make selections for trial, with particulars as to the mode of making up the goods to suit the market. Thus this agent would at the same time have the opportunity of legitimately securing all such samples of English and European manufactures as would be needful for the mills at home. The effect of such a thorough *reconnaissance* as this would be invaluable to those who are seeking to secure the trade in cottons of the Argentine Republic, and would do more towards accomplishing the great object in view than any other means which could be adopted.

In regard to the charges which would be incurred on a shipment of the various kinds of cotton goods to this market, such as freights, insurance, exchange, commissions, guaranty, interest, discount, &c., these are more or less conventional. Those who are in the trade know, far better than I can tell them, in regard to these matters. Different houses have different charges for the same service; and the surest way to avoid being imposed upon is for American shippers, by correspondence, to arrange these matters beforehand. So far as duties are concerned, I have already forwarded to the Department a translation of the Argentine tariff for the present year, but, as a matter of convenience, I reproduce the following valuations of cotton goods:

Article.	Official value.	Rate.
		Per ct.
Cotton drillings ..... kilogram..	$0.83	25
Cotton damasks, 120 to 150 centimeters ..... meter..	.35	25
Cotton damasks, 120 to 150 centimeters, mixed ..... do....	.45	25
Cotton nankins ..... do....	.06	25
Cotton prints ..... do....	.50	25
Cotton dimity ..... do....	.12½	25
Cotton cambrics, white or colored, common ..... do....	.11	25
Cotton cambrics, white or colored, medium ..... do....	.14	25
Cotton cambrics, white or colored, superior ..... do....	.25	25
Cotton ticking, any width ..... kilogram..	.69	25
Cotton ticking, 130 to 170 centimeters, mixed, common ..... meter..	.87½	25

Articles.		Official value.	Rate.
			Per ct.
Cotton ticking, 130 to 170 centimeters, mixed, fine	meter	$0.35	25
Cotton ticking, 130 to 170 centimeters, mixed, superior	do	.45	25
Cotton sheetings, white or colored	kilogram	.89	25
Cotton brilliantines, to 90 centimeters, common	meter	.10	25
Cotton brilliantines, to 90 centimeters, medium	do	.12½	25
Cotton brilliantines, fine	do	.17½	25
Cotton almenecsques, 60 to 70 centimeters	do	.13	25
Cotton almenecsques, 135 to 165 centimeters	do	.28	25
Cotton grenadines, to 65 centimeters, common	do	.10	25
Cotton grenadines, to 65 centimeters, medium	do	.15	25
Cotton grenadines, to 65 centimeters, fine	do	.25	25
Cotton canvas, 85 to 95 centimeters	do	.18	25
Cotton duck, Nos. 1 to 10	do	.35	25
Cotton canvas duck, for sails	do	.22	25
Cotton checks	kilogram	1.40	25
Cotton checks, shirting	do	.87½	25
Cotton muslins, to 75 centimeters, common	meter	.10	25
Cotton muslins, to 75 centimeters, fine	do	.12½	25
Cotton muslins, to 132 centimeters, medium	do	.17	25
Cotton muslins, to 132 centimeters, fine	do	.25	25
Cotton muslins, to 165 centimeters, medium	do	.25	25
Cotton muslins, to 165 centimeters, fine	do	.32	25
Cotton merinos, 80 to 100 centimeters	do	.13	25
Cotton towelings, 1 meter long, common	dozen	.85	25
Cotton towelings, 1 meter long, medium	do	1.50	25
Cotton towelings, 1 meter long, fine	do	2.00	25
Cotton domestics	kilogram	.08	25

There are only a few American houses doing business as importers in this port. Among these I mention the following, and can recommend them as reliable and responsible: Samuel B. Hale & Co., No. 32, calle Reconquista; C. S. Bowers & Co., No. 277, calle Cangallo; A. C. Bean & Co., No. 73, calle Piedad; C. S. Roberts, No. 44, calle San Martin; F. S. Ropes, No. 89, calle Viente-Cinco de Mayo.

Of the English houses located in this port, who are more or less engaged in the import trade from the United States, I would name the following: Matthew Forrester & Co., No. 185, calle Piedad; E. Tornguest & Co., No. 35, calle Maipu; John Shaw, No. 338, calle Venezuela; Thomas Drysdale & Co., No. 88, calle Moreno; Moore & Tudor, No. 95, calle Maipu; Mallmann & Co., No. 15, calle Piedras; Mantels & Pfeiffer, No. 21, calle Chacabuco; Bales, Stokes & Co., No. 55, calle Maipu; Shaw Bros., No. 35, calle Piedras. I could embrace in this list a large number of English importing houses whose business relations are exclusively with Great Britain, but it is not deemed necessary.

It will be seen from what I have written and the statistics I have given that the Argentine trade in cotton fabrics offers a wide field for American enterprise. And our manufacturers should bear in mind that this trade is not for a day or a season; but, I may say, for all time to come. There can be no local competition for them to contend with. There are no cotton manufacturers in the Argentine Republic, and there will be none, certainly within the life time of the present generation; while the demand for cotton goods, already very considerable, will go on increasing with the growth of the country. The great bulk of this trade now belongs to Great Britain, simply for the reason that the leading importers of dry goods in this market are English houses, many of them being merely branches of establishments in London, Liverpool, or Manchester. It is this fact which causes the principal difficulty in getting American goods upon the market here. It is a difficulty, however, which, with proper effort, can be overcome. Trade has a tendency to keep in its "old rut," but it can be diverted by furnishing a better

article cheaper or as cheap. The great thing is to establish a foothold here for American cottons; and this during the last year has been in process of accomplishment. Several English firms, and I would particularly refer to that of Mathew, Forrester & Co., who knew the superiority of the cotton fabrics of the United States and their freedom from the dirt and sizing which have made some English manufactures so notorious in foreign markets, have succeeded in disposing of all the American goods they could procure, and they tell me the prospects of a more extended trade, if our American mills will afford them proper inducements, is most promising for the future. But these prospects may not be realized unless we assist them. Our milling interests must not wait for the trade of the River Plate to come to them. They must send down here and by all available ways and means invite it. They must themselves take the initiative, and systematically show this people the superiority of their fabrics, and the advantage it will be to them to deal with the United States instead of England. The cottons trade of the Argentine Republic is worth securing, and it can be secured, but not without some labor.

E. L. BAKER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buenos Ayres, February 8, 1881.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

ASIA MINOR.

COTTON MANUFACTURES IN SYRIA.

SYRIA.

I have the honor to transmit to you the subjoined answers to the questions asked in a circular from the Department of State, making inquiry respecting the quality and value of English cotton yarns, gray and bleached cotton cloth, and of colored and printed goods annually imported into Syria.

The information was obtained by careful and minute inquiry of many foreign and native merchants, and may be relied upon as approximately correct. No statistics can be procured from custom-house officials anywhere in Turkey except by bribery, and even when so got would be very unreliable. I had great difficulty also in getting the truth from native merchants, because nearly all of them have special Manchester connections, and are afraid of any interference or competition. The information given in the following answers relates particularly to Beirut, Damascus, Aleppo, and Homs. There are so many small traders in those cities, creating great competition, that there is very little difference between wholesale and retail prices.

All commerce in the Turkish Empire is in a greatly depressed condition, owing principally to the accepted fact that the empire is being gradually disintegrated.

The government itself puts every possible obstacle in the way of enterprise and improvement.

I do not see how a profitable trade in American cottons can be established and maintained in Syria. The English have held the field for so many years that it would be very difficult to supplant them. They have created a market for special qualities and styles of goods to which the natives have become accustomed.

Possibly if a number of American manufacturers should unite and send to Syria an agent, with a great variety of goods suitable to the market, in two or three years they might lay a foundation for a remunerative trade in the future.

As the country is very poor, all staple goods sent should be very low priced. But no great trade with America could be kept up, so long as the cheap British steamers continue to bring English cottons from Liverpool to Beirut at such very low charges for freight, and carry back Syrian wool and rags, which are frequently transshipped at Liverpool for America.

The large quantity of American petroleum imported into Syria is almost always shipped in foreign bottoms, and the vessels go elsewhere for return freight. A great deal of Syrian wool goes to England and France, which would be sent to America in the returning petroleum vessels were it not for the tariff put upon that article.

Medium and low grades of washed and unwashed wool and rags are the only native products that can be shipped to America, and it is not often that the difference between New York and Boston prices and those at Beirut will justify the native merchant in shipping to America.

The greater part of the olive-oil made is consumed at home. It is made in the same way used by their ancestors thousands of years ago, is of a very poor quality, and is not fit for table use. The introduction of American petroleum for illuminating purposes lowered the price of olive-oil fifty per cent. The large quantity of cocoons and silk produced are readily absorbed by France and Italy.

Finally, no commerce with America can be sustained without a line of cheap steamers between the United States and the Levant.

JOHN T. EDGAR,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Beirut, July 21, 1880.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN CIRCULAR RESPECTING THE QUANTITY AND VALUE OF ENGLISH COTTONS IMPORTED INTO SYRIA.

1. Five million pounds. Average value per pound, $\$0.25\frac{2}{100}$.
2. All.
3. Nos. 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24. Prices from 20 to 30 cents per pound. (See samples Nos. 1, 2, and 3.)
4. None.
5. None.
6. English yarns are chiefly used by the native manufacturers for the warp of the various stuffs made by them, the weft of which stuffs is either cotton, wool, or silk. These stuffs are wrought by the native upon old-fashioned looms, the weft being raised or lowered by the feet, and the shuttle thrown by the hand from right to left or from left to right. Beside the cloths mentioned in the accompanying descriptive list, a great variety of small articles are made, such as kefiehs (head coverings), handkerchiefs, napkins, towels, mantles, belts, &c. There are thousands

of hand-looms scattered throughout the country, often in the house of the operatives. It has been estimated that nearly 5,000,000 yards of stuffs of all kinds are made annually, the greater part of which is exported to Egypt, Roumelia, Roumania, &c.

7. See samples Nos. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13.

8. Yarns are of different qualities. Samples 1, 2, and 3 are the most commonly used. Robert McLure's Sons, of Manchester, furnish the greater quantity. Trade-mark, an eagle's head; motto, "Paratus sum." Other manufacturers are: N. P. Nathan's Sons, of Manchester. Trade-mark, a winged horse. Shepherd & Sutcliff, of Manchester, and W. Sterling & Sons, of Glasgow.

9. None.

10. None.

11. There are no American merchants in Syria, nor do I know of an agent for the sale of any American goods. Luttiche & Co., and F. Wehner & Co., are very respectable German firms. N. Tanazi & Sons, J. Schacour Trad, and N. & A. Ferricini, Syrians, are large importers of English cottons.

12. The greater part is bought by the Syrian merchants on short time, say 90 days. A small part is sold on commission.

13. See samples Nos. 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19. Annual supply about 10,000 bales of 1,000 pounds.

14. See samples Nos. 20, 21, 22, and 23. Annual supply about 1,800 bales of 1,000 pounds.

15. See samples Nos. 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, and 30. Annual supply about 2,000 bales of 1,000 pounds.

16. The tariff upon all imports is 8 per cent. of the market price at Beirut at the time of entry. Average freight per ton from Liverpool to Beirut, 20 shillings sterling. Insurance from Liverpool to Beirut from 7 to 10 shillings per £100. There are no port charges. Lighterage and porterage per bale of 1,000 pounds 2½ shillings sterling. Custom-house charges for storage, 2 cents per day per bale of 1,000 pounds for the first week; double that for second week, &c. Commission, 2 per cent. Interest, from 3 to 5 per cent.; discount, from 2 to 2½ per cent.; sight exchange on London, 1½ per cent.

17. Beirut, Damascus, Aleppo, Tripoli, Homs, Latakia, and the Lebanon. About 5,000,000 pounds. More is consumed of gray yarn No. 20 than of any other number.

18. None.

19. I have no other information of any importance respecting the matters inquired about.

20. The articles named are imported direct.

21. See descriptive list herewith.

22. The market is almost always overstocked.

DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF SAMPLES SENT WITH FOREGOING REPORT.

No. 1. Yarn No. 20; bundle, 10 pounds. Price per bundle: Wholesale, $3.20; retail, $3.32.

No. 2. Yarn No. 14; bundle, 10 pounds. Price per bundle: Wholesale, $2.40; retail, $2.52.

No. 3. Yarn No. 12; bundle 10 pounds. Price per bundle: Wholesale, $2; retail, $2.12.

No. 4. Native cloth of English yarn. Length, 8 yards; width, 19 inches Price per piece: Wholesale, 45 cents; retail, 50 cents.

No. 5. Native cloth of English yarn. Length, 8 yards; width, 19 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, 60 cents; retail, 68 cents.

No. 6. Native cloth of English yarn. Length, 8 yards; width, 19 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, 75 cents; retail, 80 cents.

No. 7. Native cloth of English yarn. Length, 8 yards; width, 19 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, 75 cents; retail, 82 cents.

No. 8. English warp and native wool. Length, 8 yards; width, 27 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $4.; retail, $4.50.

No. 9. English warp and native silk. Length, 7 yards; width, 27 inches. Price from $2.20 to $2.50 per piece.

No. 10. English warp and native silk. Length, 7 yards; width, 27 inches. Price from $3 to $3.20 per piece.

Nos. 11 and 12. English warps and native silk. Length, 7 yards; width, 19 inches. Price from $3.60 to $4 per piece.

No. 13. English warp and native silk. Length, 7 yards; width, 27 inches. Price from $5 to $5.44 per piece.

No. 14. English gray lining cloth. Length, 38 yards; width, 36 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $1.80; retail, $2.

No. 15. English gray lining cloth. Length, 38 yards; width, 36 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $2; retail, $2.10.

No. 16. English cloth. Length, 24 yards; width, 22 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, 90 cents; retail, $1.

No. 17. English cloth. Length, 24 yards; width, 24 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $1.60; retail, $1.76.

No. 18. English cloth (R. McLure & Sons manufacture). Length, 24 yards; width, 36 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $1.92; retail, $2.

No. 19. English cloth. Length, 24 yards; width, 30 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $2.40; retail, $2.68.

No. 20. English cloth. Length, 40 yards; width, 1 yard. Price per piece: Wholesale, $2.40; retail, $2.52.

No. 21. English cloth. Length, 40 yards; width, 1 yard. Price per piece: Wholesale, $3; retail, $3.30.

No. 22. English cloth. Length, 40 yards; width, 1 yard. Price per piece: Wholesale, $3.80; retail, $4.

No. 23. English cloth. Length, 40 yards; width, 1 yard. Price per piece: Wholesale, $4; retail, $4.20.

No. 24. English prints. Length, 30 yards; width, 30 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $1.80; retail, $2.

Nos. 25 and 26. English prints. Length, 30 yards; width, 30 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $2; retail, $2.30.

Nos. 27 and 28. English prints. Length, 30 yards; width, 30 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $2.10; retail, $2.20.

No. 29. English prints. Length, 30 yards; width, 30 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $2.60; retail, $2.75.

No. 30. English prints. Length, 30 yards; width, 30 inches. Price per piece: Wholesale, $2.80; retail, $3.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF CALCUTTA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LITCHFIELD.

[Referring to your instructions dated March 9, which were accompanied with a series of questions relative to the cotton trade, I have the honor herewith to submit as full and accurate information upon the

character and extent of the trade within the presidency of Bengal as the limited time at my disposal has allowed; and I regret to say that the samples requested are not ready to accompany this dispatch, but are being procured and will be forwarded as soon as a complete assortment is obtained by Mr. Cobb, vice-consul-general, to whom I am about to make over the office.

I have been favored in my endeavors to obtain full and valuable information as possible by a merchant long familiar with the trade in cotton yarn and piece goods, and while it is not all that I would like, so much as is submitted may, I think, be depended on as reliable. Moreover, I trust the vice-consul-general will continue to gather and transmit additional information that will be of value to manufacturers in the United States.

The piece goods trade in this country is undergoing a change in favor of the local weaving industry, clearly because the native cloth is *cotton* cloth, and not a mixture of cotton and clay, as is the case in the greater portion of the British goods. Such being the case it would seem to be a favorable time to push the sale of American cotton goods. At the same time, with a decided superiority in quality on the part of American goods, it would be by no means an easy matter to meet the preferences of the actual consumers since the British importers and native middlemen are almost able to dictate to the poor consumer what he shall wear.

As fully as I am able I will answer the inquiries which accompanied your instructions, as per circular.

In the year 1878–'79 England exported to British India 32,477,722 pounds of cotton yarns, valued in India at time of entry at Rs. 27,069,054, or in United States gold $10,827,621.60.

No. 1. The portion of these yarns imported into this district was 13,091,144 pounds, and the value Rs. 10,497, 680 = $419,907.

No. 2. A very small portion of the yarn imported was what is known as "water twist," say about 120 bales of No. 20s, but of No. 30s throstle spun, about 250 to 300 bales, and about 100 bales of No. 20s. These low counts of foreign manufacture cannot compete with the local mills, and imports are falling off.

No. 3. No. 20s, water, present price, 18.75 cents; No. 20s, throstle, present price, 19.37 cents; No. 30s, water, present price, 14.37 cents; No. 30s, throstle, present price, 15 cents. Yarn, as a rule, is done up as follows: 20s, 30s, 40s, in 10 pound bundles; 50s to 250s, in 5 pound bundles, and sold by the "morah." Of 20s, 1 pound=1 morah, present prices, 18.5 cents to 19.16 cents; 30s, 1 pound=1½ morah, present prices, 14.37 cents to 15 cents; 40s, 1 pound=2 morah, present prices, 12.08 cents to 14.8 cents; 50s, 1 pound=2½ morah, present prices, 11.87 cents to 13.5 cents; 60s, 1 pound=3 morah, present prices, 9.16 cents to 13.12 cents.

No. 4. Cannot say; yarns are packed in 500 pound bales.

No. 5. No. 20s to 250s are imported, sold at different rates. See No. 3 for an example.

No. 6. As a rule these yarns are used for making gray dhooties (worn round the loins by natives), an article of extensive consumption here. Yarns are also woven with silk. The fine counts are used for making very fine mulls, especially in Dacca, Santipoore, and Delhi.

No. 7. Samples will be procured and forwarded, labeled, described, valued, &c., as required.

No. 8. The yarns imported are of various qualities and known here by the different trade-marks. A preference would be given to a known spinning of inferior quality over superior but unknown spinning. In No. 40s the following are known spinnings: Banner Mill, George May-

all, John Mayall, Kingston, Nicholes, Lucas, Wilkinson, Taylor Cooper, Sidebotham, Lamark, Brunswick Mill, Dacca, Burton, Thackeray, Tunnicliffe, Lightoller, Coventry, Kemplay. In 50s, Brunswick, Dacca, Burton, Lightoller, Kemplay. No. 60s, ditto, ditto. No. 70s to 100s, ditto, ditto; also what is known as real Russian medio yarn.

No. 9. No yarns are imported that are the manufactures of the United States.

No. 10. Messrs. Graham & Co., Anderson, Wright & Co., Kettewell, Bullen & Co., Graham, Macpi & Co., Ewing & Co., John Elliot & Co., Finlay, Muir & Co., Geo. Henderson & Co.

No. 11. No American is in the yarn trade. Messrs. C. C. Bancroft & Co., Whitney Brothers & Co., Edwards Brothers & Co., if familiar with the trade are good firms; any of the firms mentioned in the answer to No. 10 would meet the requirements.

No. 12. Sometimes shipped on account of the spinner, sometimes joint account, but as a rule purchased by parties importing the yarn.

Nos. 13, 14, and 15. Samples with full particulars will follow, but it will require some time to do this.

No. 16. Goods are sold on credit for 50 days, and it is optional with buyer to pay cash under discount of 12 per cent. per annum.

The following *pro forma* account sales will show the usual scale of charges:

	Rupees.
100 bales gray shirtings, 8 pounds, 500 pieces, at 5 rupees per piece	25,000
Less three months discount, at 8 per cent	500
Charges	24,500

If made of yarns not finer than 30s, no duty; but, if otherwise, duty at 5 per cent. on 0–8–6 per pound. Interest on duty, for 50 days, at 8 per cent.; landing charges, 0–12–0 per bale; go down rent 0–6–0, per bale per month; fire insurance at ¼ per cent. per quarter; portage, petties, and telegrams, 1 rupee per bale; selling commission, 2½ per cent.; proceeds due 50 days after Rs.; sale date.

No. 17. Calcutta supplies the whole of northwest provinces and Punjab, also Bengal and Orissa. Duty—free goods have the preference, owing to their being made of stout yarns. Imports for the year will answer approximately.

No. 18. I cannot learn that they are; if so, in small quantities and by natives.

No. 19. This information must follow in a separate dispatch; partial information such as I could furnish now would be of little value.

No. 20. Every description is imported in Calcutta.

Nos. 21 and 22. These instructions will have the careful attention of Mr. Cobb, with the help of the friend to whom I am indebted for much of this information.

A. C. LITCHFIELD.

UNITED CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Calcutta, July 8, 1880.

IMPORTATION INTO, AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON GOODS IN, CEYLON.

REPORT BY CONSUL MOREY, OF COLOMBO.

Referring to dispatch marked separate of 19th March last, I have to report that the total imports of cottons to this island in 1879 amounted to $2,894,673; say for cotton manufactures, $2,807,762; Turkey red

and other colored yarns, $19,456; mule twist, $67,455=86,911; total, $2,804,673; of which there was re-exported, to India principally, an amount valued at $762,472; say, cotton manufactures, $738,850; cotton yarn and mule twist, $23,622; total, $762,472; a moiety of the balance remaining here unsold, owing to the languishing state of the local manufactures.

The present wholesale price is 30 cents, but it averages 35 cents per pound, the number and description most salable being No. 40 mule twist; no particular trade-mark having a preference. This yarn is usually imported in 5 pound packets, occasionally in 10 pound packets. The manufactures from it are "handkerchiefs" and "Camboys" and "Savongs," *i. e.*, nether garments worn like petticoats by the Singalese of both sexes, and "chalies" for the Tamil women. The seats of these manufactures are Batticaloa on the east, and Jaffna on the north, coast of the island.

These local manufactures are all pattern goods; consequently, samples can only be obtained by buying an entire article; therefore, and as a 4 by 6 in sample would convey only an imperfect idea of the goods, I am sending per parcel post through B. F. Stevens, forwarding agent, London, complete specimens, and with respect to their consumption 20,000 of each, provided the texture and color were superior, would find a good market here. The English imitate them largely.

Cotton yarns are not sent here from the United States. They come from England, and the principal importers are Darley, Butler & Co., Durham, Gruidrod & Co., and Carson & Co.

The only American house here is Morey & Co. They would be willing to handle on commission a parcel of mule twist, though they would not recommend the shipment at present. The European houses whom I could confidently recommend are, Aitken, Spence & Co., British, and Volkart Brothers, German merchants.

All cotton goods including yarns are sent here for sale on commission.

Shippers might expect that 25 per cent. would cover all costs and charges on their goods sent for sale.

Cotton yarn is not used here at all in the manufacture of rope; a little is converted into fishing lines and nets, but the amount so used is inconsiderable.

I would further state that at Canamore, on the Malabar coast of India, there is a large weaving establishment importing its own yarns from Europe; and its manufactures being of excellent quality and design, they find a ready sale all over India and Ceylon.

I have only been able to obtain a No. 2 sample book of their goods, and this I send along with the other samples of European and Ceylon textiles, strongly recommending all American manufacturers who propose patronising this market to copy largely the "Basel Mission" fabrics, in all articles for European and Eurasian men's wear; whilst with respect to purely native use, any improvement in the color and quality of those goods without increasing their prices will insure their rapid sale. Brilliant colors catch the native eye and tickle the fancy, and I regret being unable to send more samples of their costumes. The amount allowed me in fact for purchasing samples is so small that I have only been able to buy prominent specimens of those articles which from their cheapness are in greatest demand. There are various patterns of same, and of superior qualities, which would need to be imitated in manufacturing largely for this market, and should the department sanction their purchase I would obtain and forward them hereafter. Those now sent have cost $4.80, besides $2 being sundry carriage hires expended in

procuring them and this information, making a total of $6.80, which will be charged in the miscellaneous account for this quarter.

I append a descriptive list of the samples forwarded.

W. MOREY.

COLOMBO, *June* 24, 1880.

DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF SAMPLES FROM CEYLON, FORWARDED WITH CONSUL MOREY'S REPORT.

Nos. 1, 2, and 2½ cotton drill, obtained from Aitken, Spence & Co., Cargill & Co., and Carson & Co., representing the best and not quite the poorest of the imported article; $10,000 worth of a superior quality at same prices would find a quick market.

Nos. 3, 4, 5, and 5½ gray shirtings, obtained from Durham, Gruidrod & Co., Carson & Co., Darley, Butler & Co., and "Moona Rana Moona," fairly represent the different qualities sold here; $100,000 worth of improved quality at same price could be sold here in a year, probably more than that quantity.

Nos. 6, 7, and 8 bleached sheetings, obtained from Avoe Lebbe, a native shop-keeper, are in limited demand; the people using sheets in this country being in the minority.

Nos. 9, 10, and 11 are bleached long cloth, shirtings, and lawn, obtained from Chetty dealers. Better qualities at same prices would insure a sale of $50,000 worth collectively per annum; No. 9, Horrockses long cloth, representing half of that quantity.

No. 12. Bed ticking is in limited demand; $5,000 worth could be sold.

No. 13. Turkey-red cloth is always in good demand; $10,000 worth and more of same and better quality would sell.

No. 14. Check trousering, used also for entire suits, is salable to the extent of $5,000 worth. The same pattern is made in smaller checks.

Nos. 15, 16, 16½, classed as ginghams, are as near to that description of goods as is imported here. Nos. 15 and 16, however, are shirtings largely in use; and No. 16½ is a new thing for women's dresses imported by Avoe Lebbe, and in great demand.

Nos. 17 and 18, brilliant calico print, obtained from Cader Saibo, are in fair demand.

Nos. 19, 20, 21, and 22. Printed calico and chintz, obtained from Cargill & Co., and Mohammed Usoof, represent the best and poorest qualities of that class of goods, Nos. 20 and 21 finding by far the largest sale.

The Cannamore samples are marked with the prices at the mills. The goods fetch from 25 to 30 per cent. more at retail here.

LIST OF SAMPLES OF CEYLON MANUFACTURES.

Nos. 23, 24, and 25. Tamil women's "chalies" are cheap qualities, and therefore most used. They are 40 inches broad by 6½ yards long. An additional ¼ yard in their length, with improved texture and color, at same price, would insure the sale of $20,000 of each pattern the first year, and ten times that amount could be sold in Southern India.

Nos. 26 to 31. Singhalese men, women, and children's handkerchiefs, camboys, and savongs sell here by the hundred thousand; and any improvement in them, without raising the price, would capture the market.

N. B.—All the above and foregoing prices are United States gold for

wholesale, calculating the rupee at 40 cents; whereas, I trust next year that that needlessly much depreciated coin will be worth nearer 45 cents; and I may add, these prices are, owing to the hard times and present unprecedented scarcity of money, the lowest the goods have ever touched in this market, and are, in my opinion, likely to improve.

The natives of this country are comparatively rich, owing to the immense sums of money squandered here by Europeans during the last fifteen years having gravitated, as it were, largely into their pockets. Consequently, they are the people to cater for; and, being a shrewd race so far as bargaining is concerned, a better article for the money, provided it is their style, will always secure their custom.

W. M.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF CHINA.

Report by Minister Seward, of Peking.

The consul at Tientsin, Mr. Denny, has responded promptly to my circular note asking for information in regard to the cotton-goods trade. His dispatch is very interesting, and I transmit it to you without waiting for the reports of our officers at more distant points.* I remark upon it as follows:

THE ADULTERATION OF ENGLISH COTTONS.

English manufacturers make clean goods as well as those adulterated. The latter are useful for certain purposes, as, for instance, for backings and linings generally. The Chinese understand perfectly well whether they are buying the one or the other class, and the future of the trade as respects the competition between the manufactories of the United States and England does not depend, as I believe, upon our refusal to adulterate, but rather upon the question whether we can supply cottons of different grades more cheaply than the English.

ESTABLISHMENT OF COTTON MILLS IN CHINA.

I have asked the consul-general to report upon the project on foot at Shanghai for the establishment of a cotton-goods factory. I am not disposed to believe that it is progressing favorably, but I have no doubt that mills will be established sooner or later, and that the result will be a serious blow to the foreign trade. Chinese hand-made cottons run a close competition with foreign goods, and the greater cheapness of manufacturing by machinery will, of course, tell in favor of the native manufacturing interest.

It is to be remembered that there is a duty upon imported cottons, and that taxes of various kinds are levied upon them after importation. The native manufacturing interest will, therefore, be protected in a more or less marked degree.

Cotton-mills have been successful in India, when protected to an extent of a 5 per cent. tariff only, and there is a possibility that they will be sustained, notwithstanding the abandonment of the duty.

There is no great market in China for free cottons. Such demand as

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*Consul Denny's report will be found in its proper place, according to alphabetical arrangement by consulates, under the heading of Tientsin.

there is will continue to be met by importations from Europe and America for the reason that the cotton of China has a short staple, and that it will be cheaper to import the manufactured article than to manufacture it from imported materials.

Direct shipments to North China are not likely to be undertaken. Shanghai now receives nearly the whole quantity of cottons imported into China, and they are distributed thence to the central and northern regions of the empire, and, measurably, to Japan. As the largest market it is the one selected by sellers and buyers. It has, moreover, great advantage in the fact that a great quantity of merchandise other than cotton goods finds a distributing market there, and that it is a large exporting place. There is an average of nearly one ship or steamer departure each day for Europe and a corresponding number of arrivals. Freights will always rule much lower to such a point than upon an entirely exceptional route, as that to North China would be.

THE FUTURE OF THE TRADE.

The best augury for the future of the cotton-goods trade in China will be found in the fact that it is already large, and is increasing. Abundant evidence is thus afforded that we can compete successfully with other countries. A very narrow range of profit satisfies manufacturers and merchants at the present day, and the tide of change once set in there appears every reason to believe that the causes which have operated so far will continue and will effect a still greater change.

The trade in this region of China especially would appear to promise well. There has been a succession of years of famine and disaster, but the condition of the country is rapidly improving now, and this fact should be reflected in the course of trade in cotton and in other articles.

It is much to be hoped that the negotiations now going forward between the foreign representatives in this capital and the Chinese Government, intended to place foreign imports in a more secure position, will be successful, for Mr. Denny is entirely right in his statement that the greatest obstacle to the development of trade is the existing irregular and heavy taxation imposed upon all foreign goods.

GEORGE F. SEWARD.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Peking, February 2, 1880.

COTTON MANUFACTURE IN CHINA.

REPORT BY COUNSUL-GENERAL DENNY

The project set on foot about two years ago, to erect cotton mills at Shanghai for the manufacturing of cotton goods on foreign loans, under the supervision of skilled foreign operatives, has caused more or less discussion as to the probable effects upon the present demand for foreign cotton goods, in the event the contemplated enterprise becomes an accomplished fact.

While many foreigners in the east almost would delight in the success of this enterprise, for the reason that it would lead to the adoption of other western ideas, so much needed in the development of China's natural wealth, yet there are some good reasons which present them-

selves to the mind of the practical observer why it will fail to meet the expectations of its promoters.

In my report on trade for the year just closed, I took occasion to remark upon this subject substantially as follows:

> The cotton mill at Shanghai referred to in my last report from Tientsin is no nearer an established fact than it was then. The scheme was promoted by a Santai, Peng, who obtained the special permission from the Viceroy Li Hung Chang. Another Santai, Leni, joined the undertaking and furnished capital of 20,000 taels to start with. These promoters then tried to float a public company, but the management failed to secure the confidence sufficiently of the public. Meanwhile those who had the matter in hand had already acquired title to a suitable piece of ground on the Hiwangpoo River, on the so-called American concession, and the building of a large establishment appeared at the time to be pushed forward with vigor. They also concluded a contract with an English firm for machinery, amounting to 250,000 taels. At present the matter is at a standstill. The machinery, although ordered, has not yet arrived, on account of want of funds, as it was stipulated that it should be paid for by installments.
>
> The building operations of course have been suspended, and the foundations, which can now be seen above the ground, are fast going to ruins. Whether the establishment of such a mill in this country would ever be successful in their complications for the trade in the quality of cotton goods now supplied from foreign markets is very doubtful; for, owing to the texture and shortness of fiber of the China cotton, it is only suitable for very heavy and coarse goods, while its cost is greater than American cotton even after it is put on the Liverpool market. For these and minor reasons, I am of the opinion that there is no occasion for the foreign manufacturing mind to become alarmed in the near future at the prospect of serious opposition from this quarter.

Since making the above comments it would seem from the notices published in the press of Shanghai—two of which are herewith inclosed—that the projectors are again moving in the matter, and not without some prospects of raising the amount of money necessary, as it appears that one-half of the shares have already been subscribed, and it is for the purpose of adding some comments that I again refer to the subject at this time.

In the first place we will assume that the figures given by the managers, of the cost of machinery and plant, as well as of working expenses, are correct, and assume also that their proposed "monopoly" of the weaving business will not lead to complications, the main question is, What quality of cloth can they manufacture out of Chinese cotton? The prospectus states that "Chinese cotton has already been sent to England, is worn there, and then brought back to China, and it has proved to be of slightly better quality than that grown in other countries."

There is every reason to doubt this statement. China cotton is very short in staple, and though it might be used for web it cannot be made into yarn strong enough to bear the strain put upon the warp in a power loom; this at least is the experience of foreigners who have gone thoroughly into the question.

A gentleman connected with a leading English house here took to England a few years ago full estimates for establishing a weaving company at Shanghai, and his English connections at first warmly supported the enterprise.

The scheme, however, was abandoned, not as may happen to the Chinese company, for want of capital, but because it was found by experiment that the proper kind of yarn for gray shirtings and T cloths could not be made out of Chinese cotton; that the cloth was coarse and heavy, resembling the finer quality of that manufactured on native looms, rather than anything else.

Perhaps the best evidence that the published scheme is a hazardous one is the fact that no Chinese in the foreign-goods trade will subscribe a dollar towards it.

However, should it reach successful operations, the more intelligent opinion is that the competition would be with native looms rather than European and American manufactories.

O. N. DENNY,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Shanghai, November 30, 1880.

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS IN CHINA.

REPORTS UPON THE TRADE IN AMERICAN COTTON GOODS IN CHINA, TRANSMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE BY MR. SEWARD, MINISTER OF THE UNITED STATES AT PEKING.

Referring to my dispatch No. 554, with which I forwarded to you a copy of a circular letter which I had addressed to our consuls in this empire asking for information as to the condition and prospects of the trade in American cotton goods, I have now the honor to hand to you copies of the responses which have been received from Amoy, Canton, Chinkiang, Foochow, Hankow, and Ningpo. No reports have been received from Newchwang and Shanghai.

The report from our consul at Tientsin was transmitted to you with my dispatch No. 583.

You will see from these papers that there is a marked increase in the demand for our cotton fabrics throughout this empire.

GEORGE F. SEWARD;
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Peking, June 12, 1880.

AMERICAN COTTONS AT AMOY.

REPORT BY CONSUL GOLDSBOROUGH.

I have had the honor to receive your No. 84, asking me for information regarding the shipment of American cotton goods to China, and beg herewith to inclose a memorandum received on the 23d instant from the customs.

In a very elaborate report, No. 180, of July 13, 1878, submitted by my predecessor to the Department, I find that several kinds of native white and gray shirtings 21½ inches wide by 27 and 28 feet long, much used by upper and lower classes of both sexes for clothing of all kinds, especially for warm underwear in winter, coverlids, and men's stockings, and suggested by him as suitable for this market, have been manufactured in America, and are being largely sold by Messrs. Jno. L. Anderson & Co. at same prices as native manufactured goods.

I am informed by the Messrs. Anderson & Co. that this is a growing trade, and that they have hopes that sooner or later these goods will, to a great extent, supersede the native fabrics.

It would have afforded me great pleasure to have forwarded the de-

sired information at an earlier period, had I not been delayed in procuring the same by reason of the temporary absence of the commissioner.

W. ELWELL GOLDSBOROUGH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE, *March* 25, 1880.

Memorandum from the custom-house, Amoy, March 22, 1880.

Importation of American piece goods, season 1879:

	Pieces.
American drills	3,203
American sheetings	1,541
Season 1880 to date:	
American drills	455
American sheetings	12

H. E. HOBSON,
Commissioner of Customs.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE AT CANTON.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL CHESHIRE.

I have the honor to reply to your dispatch No. 75, in which you remark that "it is understood that American cotton goods are being shipped to China in increasing quantities," and you wish me to report to you such facts regarding the trade as may seem to me of interest.

Large quantities of piece goods of all kinds and descriptions are shipped to this port from Hong-Kong per native craft, and in the absence of any statistics of the trade which passes through the native custom-house there is no means of ascertaining any exact figures of the extent of importation. But from the foreign customs returns it would seem that American goods are increasing in favor, as the following figures will show: In 1879 there were 825 pieces of American drills imported against 206 pieces in 1878.

From information I have gathered from various sources I find that American goods are gaining popularity with the natives on account of their superiority over English make.

The trade in piece goods in Canton is entirely in the hands of native merchants, who get their supplies from the importer at Hong-Kong. There is no direct trade between the foreign merchants and the native dealers at this port, as the native merchants prefer to make their purchases at Hong-Kong, where there is a large market and an extensive assortment of goods to select from. The bulk of the piece-goods trade at Hong-Kong is carried on by English firms who are constantly receiving large consignments of Manchester goods, such as the market requires.

There can be no doubt that American manufactures are superior to the English, and it would seem that, in view of this fact, the one thing necessary to establish an increasing trade is for our manufacturers to watch closely the requirements of the Chinese, and send out consignments regularly of goods that can be sold on the market on this side at the same price as those of other manufacture. It is said that American manufacturers can produce a better article than the English or German, and at a *lower* figure, and if such be the case, there can be no doubt that an honest and cheap material will find favor in preference to flimsy adulterated goods. Mr. Williams informs me that—

The importation of American cotton piece goods at Swatow is still very limited, partly on account of the native dealers there not being sufficiently acquainted with

them, and no direct shipments having been made to that port; that cheap goods are preferable, the Chinese buyers looking altogether at the prices without giving any credit to the superior quality of the article, consequently a cheap material will always find a ready market; that there is no reason why our American cotton goods should not receive a larger share of the patronage of the port than at present exists, and to secure this end our merchant importers should be prepared to offer facilities to the local dealers equal to those of other nationalities. This and the preparation of piece goods suitable for the Swatow market would soon receive the patronage of the Chinese to a marked extent.

F. D. CHESHIRE,
Vice-Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE,
Canton, March 3, 1880.

AMERICAN COTTONS AT CHIN-KIANG.

REPORT BY CONSUL SCRUGGS.

In reply to your No. 58, of the 10th ultimo, I have the honor to state that the local trade of this district in American cotton drills and sheetings is steadily increasing. The trade is, however, confined almost exclusively to the two articles named. These are imported through foreign houses at Shanghai. There are no direct importations hither; though there are now three foreign and eight native houses in Chin-Kiang that deal extensively in these articles. Two of these are English and one American. Of the Chinese houses referred to, one numbers 11 copartners and employs a capital of 300,000 taels. It is said to be doing an extensive business in this line, though (for obvious reasons) I have been quite unable to learn the exact scope and magnitude of their trade.

The goods referred to are of New England manufacture. They cost considerably more than the English fabrics of the same species, but are nevertheless preferred on account of their acknowledged superior quality. The mere name of "American goods," according to the statement of a native dealer, is sufficient to recommend them to purchasers.

I think it would be well, however (as I have already suggested to the Department), to caution some of our manufacturers and brokers at home against a somewhat careless manner of wrapping and packing their fabrics intended for this market.

WILLIAM L. SCRUGGS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Chin-Kiang, February 19, 1880.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE AT FOO-CHOW.

REPORT BY CONSUL DE LANO.

In response to your request contained in your dispatch No. 99, of date of January 10, I have the honor to report as follows upon the trade in cotton goods at this port:

The total number of yards of cotton piece goods imported into China at the present time may be roundly stated at 530,000,000 yards, of which

only 9,000,000 yards come to Foo-Chow, and only 250,000 of these are American drills.

I give you below a table showing the imports into Foo-Chow from 1876 to 1879, both years inclusive, of shirtings, T-cloths, and drills, American and English—

Description.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.
Shirtings, gray ..... pieces..	53,104	56,047	57,092	63,424
Shirtings, white ..... do....	11,952	12,122	15,238	18,172
T-cloths ..... do....	217,601	199,343	207,404	283,522
Drills, English ..... do....	16,974	8,725	4,741	4,020
Drills, American ..... do....	8,853	6,792	6,753	6,004

which, as you will observe, shows a falling off of 12,954 pieces of English and 2,198 pieces of American drills since the year first above named, while during the same period there has been a considerable increase in the import of lighter goods, namely, T-cloths and shirtings, gray and white.

All the American cottons coming to Foo-Chow are supposed to be embraced in the customs report of *drills* imported; and to go back to the year 1864, the imports of English, American, and Dutch have been, in pieces, as follows: 1864, 16; 1865, 120; 1866, 1,817; 1867, 4,403; 1868, 4,560; 1869, 5,730; 1870, 12,209; 1871, 21,613; 1872, 22,237; 1873, 31,375; 1874, 38,071; 1875, 24,662; 1876, 25,827; 1877, 15,720; 1878, 11,694; 1879, 10,040 pieces. In 1862 and 1863 there was actually an export from here of drills which had been imported in previous years.

With reference to the decline in the import of drills, I quote from the Customs Trade Report for 1877. There has been an average annual import of about 60,000 pieces of gray shirtings during the last five years. White shirtings show an average of 10,000 pieces. T-cloths have averaged during the same period about 205,000 pieces. Perhaps the most marked but still insignificant feature of an almost insignificant trade is the decline in the import of drills, which have sunk from an import of 31,375 pieces in 1873, to 15,720 pieces in 1877. The above table shows a still further decline of 5,680 pieces in 1879.

Efforts have been made to introduce American fabric of a lighter weight than the 15-pound drills, but they have met with little success, and probably without exception the attempt to supplant the English sized light-weight manufactures with pure goods from America has resulted in loss to the importers. Natives of the region supplied from this port seem generally to prefer native cloth, which, though coarser, is said to be more durable than its foreign rival. It is at the outset more costly than the light-weight foreign fabric, but by the common and laboring people they would, if all were able to buy them, be almost universally taken, leaving the less durable but more delicate fabrics to the more wealthy, who use them extensively for underclothing.

The preference for native manufactures has been much increased, no doubt, by a general distrust engendered by the adulteration of Manchester goods. By the customs trade reports it appears that sheetings, drills, and jeans are largely consumed in the northern provinces, but few being taken south of Ningpo.

At Takow and Taivanfoo, cotton dyers from Canton are said to dye foreign T-cloths, making them into an article afterwards sold as imitation native cloths. A similar trade is said to exist also at Swatow, where sheetings are dyed for shipment to Shanghai, where they are said to be sold for native dyed cloth.

The foregoing goes to show that American heavy cottons go to North

China, and do not come here; that American light cottons cannot compete with the English lighter ones, unless it be the 12-pound shirtings, which correspond for weight with the T-cloths; that native cloth is a serious rival; and that the Foo-Chow distribution of drills has greatly fallen off.

Four-fifths of the cottons entering at Foo-Chow are T-cloths, 32 inches, 24 yards, weighing 6, 7, 8 pounds. The remaining fifth is mostly shirtings, 39 inches, 39 yards, weighing 7 to 8¼ pounds, and a few 10 pounds. T-cloths seem to be the width and weight required, and Manchester seems to produce plenty of honest goods for the honest demand.

The Chinese have been called a people in blue jeans, but it would be far more to the point to say that they are a people in blue T-cloths and shirtings, for of the 10,000,000 pieces of cloths entering all China in the year 1877, 6,000,000 were shirtings (five gray and one white), 3,000,000 T-cloths, and only 1,000,000 drills, with one-third of a million each of jeans and sheetings.

It is safe to say that half the drills coming here are used for sails, a considerable quantity for sea-bags, in which the leaf is brought in from the nearer tea districts, while but little is worn. Drills do not submit to a patch, and therefore when once rent cannot be neatly mended like a lighter fabric.

Of all the foreign cottons together there came to Foo-Chow in 1878 300,000 pieces, weighing less than 2,500,000 pounds. Of native cloth there was imported an equal amount in weight, mostly from Ningpo and Shanghai, which places also sent to Foo-Chow, in junks, 10,000 (Chinese) bales of raw cotton.

As before mentioned, the native cloth is coarser, large-textured, the threads not giving way easily, and clothes of this wear four years against two years for those made of foreign cloths. It is this heavy native cloth and the heavy T-cloths which mainly cover the people of this district in fall and winter, and the bulk of that passing through Foo-Chow into the more remote tea districts is of the same sort.

The brands and chops of cotton-mill shippers and China consignees come in the course of time to be a certificate to the natives of what they are buying, as with us. Against the "Kecheong" chop drills 15 pounds shipped by A. A. Low & Bros. to Messrs. Russell & Co., China, there compete the 14 pound drills (English) "Sorykee" (Arnhold, Karberg & Co., Hong-Kong), the Cock or Pheasant, Globe, Dragon, &c., &c., also the House and Flag, the latter classed as 14 pounds, and I think English.

Of those coming here, the one bearing Messrs. Russell & Co.'s brand is the best, and leads all the others in price. The larger part of cottons come from Hong-Kong, the smaller part from Shanghai. None are imported from foreign countries direct, though in former years when American tea clippers came here to load tea for the American markets, they part with American cottons.

To increase the consumption of American cottons here it would be necessary to lay down such kinds as are now supplied by English manufacturers, equally good in quality, at lower figures than those they can sell at, because the English now have the bulk of the trade, and the merchants, being nearly all English, will naturally give preference to their own manufacturers, unless they can see a certain profit to accrue from purchasing from others.

M. M. DE LANO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Foo-Chow, February 23, 1880.

AMERICAN COTTONS AT HANKOW.

REPORT BY CONSUL SHEPARD.

In accordance with the request made in your No. 81, as to the facts regarding the growing importance of American cottons in China, I have the honor to submit the following brief of exhibit the facts at this port.

Previous to 1877 there was very little export of cottons from the United States to Hankow, the consumption and demand being so small that it was reported as nothing in the custom-house returns, or rather not reported separately. The trade began in the second quarter of that year, and its growth was so marked that I made it a special topic of notice and remark. A year's observation convinced me that the impulse in favor of our manufactures would be permanent by the observance of two conditions:

1st. There must be continued integrity in the fabrics.

2d. Enterprise in working the market.

These points I emphasized in my trade reports for 1878, and again in 1879. I felt constrained to enforce the ideas by a few paragraphs illustrating the hostility and energy by which British interests would oppose the tide so energetically turning against them. I also suggested the need of lighter fabrics for the southern markets, to compete with British goods now in use, or rather, I believe, to supplant them very largely. These reports, however, have been printed entire, and as they doubtless are in your hands, any elaborate treatment of the topic is unnecessary here. They were gratifyingly commended by the State Department, and I refer to them as embodying in brief my views from the observation I have had at this point. To give you, however, a succinct and correct view of the increase and status of the trade, I have collected the annexed table, which I have delayed to send you till I could include the imports of the last quarter.

ISAAC F. SHEPARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hankow, April 12, 1880.

Table showing the rise and progress of importation of American cottons at Hankow, China.

Period embraced.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
Number of pieces to March 31	Nil.	5,550	12,236	9,385
To June 30	5,020	18,915	18,305	.....
To September 30	2,390	7,960	8,550	.....
To December 31	1,300	5,400	1,955	.....

	Pieces.
Total for 1877	8,710
Total for 1878	37,825
Total for 1879	41,046
Total imported in three years	87,581
Increase in 1878—total	29,115
Increase in 1879—total	3,221

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE AT NINGPO.

REPORT BY CONSUL LORD.

Referring to your dispatch No. 52, dated the 10th of January last, and received at this office on the 5th of February, I have to say that on its receipt I had some conversation with Mr. Drew, the commissioner of customs here, who I thought would be able to afford me more information than I had. He seemed not to have it himself, but he thought he could get it for me; I asked him to do so, and he said he would. But he was very busy getting ready to go home, and I suppose it was forgotten. In the mean time I was very busy with other matters, so this matter has been delayed.

The amount of cotton goods imported here does not seem to have increased during the past four years. On the contrary, there has been a considerable falling off. In 1876, the imports amounted to some 850,000 pieces. In 1877, they had fallen to about 715,000 pieces. In 1878, they fell to about 625,000. Last year, 1879, there was no further decrease. The tendency was, I believe, slightly upward. But how the matter has been, or how it is in regard to our own cottons, I am unable to make any very definite statements.

In the reports of the customs these goods are for the most part simply mentioned by their commercial names. In only a few instances is their nationality indicated. But the prevailing opinion among those with whom I have conversed upon the subject seems to be that the demand for our goods is increasing, more especially when they are to be sent to remote places inland. In this vicinity there is a large demand for dyed goods. And the lighter, cheaper fabrics are used for this purpose. Damaged goods are also largely used for this purpose.

The name of our goods is no doubt at a premium. This is a valuable circumstance and one which I trust will be maintained. This will help us, but it will not secure to us the cotton trade. In addition to this we must make and sell our goods as cheap as or a little cheaper than others. Then the trade will be ours. The contest must be one of skill and economy.

I shall endeavor to keep my eye on all matters of interest at this port, and I shall always be glad to furnish you with any information that I may have or may be able to get.

EDWARD C. LORD, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Ningpo, April 19, 1880.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF TIENTSIN AND CHEFOO.

REPORT BY CONSUL DENNY.

In compliance with the request contained in your dispatch No. 71, concerning the trade in American cotton goods, you will observe that I have not set forth in detail this branch of trade with this port with that minuteness which is necessary at almost all other ports in the East, for the reason that Tientsin, although one of the largest consuming ports in China for foreign manufactures, receives nearly of all its stock of supplies direct from Shanghai. That port is the destination of all imports constituting the northern trade, and hence all goods bound for the north

must be reshipped for Tientsin. This being true, the imports as well as exports to and from the north should be contained in the consul-general's report as a part of the trade with the port of Shanghai. I will therefore only make some comparative statements for the purpose of showing the increase of trade with this port during the last three years in cotton piece goods, what portion is with the United States, and how that trade may be still further increased.

During the war of the rebellion our dealers in cotton piece goods, who had controlled this valuable trade prior and up to this time, were, on account of this war and the consequent scarcity of cotton, compelled to abandon it for the time being, leaving their competitors, the English, in complete possession of this market, and had the English merchants been content with fair profits and a rapidly-increasing trade, they would hardly to-day be subjected to any serious competition from any source whatever. But they were not. They desired to make their already enormous profits still greater, and to do this began the adulteration of their goods. The result was that while they realized immense profits for the time being, yet it was at the expense of their reputation as merchants, and, at the same time, opened the door to that competition which has already cost them so much and which is destined to cost them still more in the future of this trade.

The following table will show the course of the Tientsin and Chefoo trade in cotton for the last three years. The English and American merchants being the principal contestants for the cotton trade in the East, the comparisons are confined to them alone.

Import of cotton piece goods at the port of Tientsin.

Description.	1877.*		1878.†		1879.‡	
	American.	English.	American.	English.	American.	English.
Drills.....pieces..	90,500	120,005	113,589	61,662	259,770	145,930
Sheetings ..... do...	144,786	40,077	187,165	20,045	410,392	36,445
Jeans .....do...	24,414	98,960	26,575	30,010	27,070	61,832
Total	259,700	259,042	327,269	111,717	697,232	244,207

* Total American import same as English.
† Total American import three times greater than English.
‡ Total American import three times greater than English.

At the port of Chefoo the customs records do not furnish the required data as given above; but the rate of increase in the import of American drills and sheetings over English is about the same as at Tientsin, namely, three times greater during 1878 and 1879. The import of American goods at Chefoo, was, in—

Date.	Drills.	Sheetings.
1878 .....pieces..	58,165	59,957
1879, 9 months to September 30 .....do....	55,885	73,032

While this increase of trade with the United States, especially for the years 1878 and 1879, should be gratifying to the American manufacturer, yet it is not what it should and would be were it not for the burdensome and illegal taxation to which it is now being subjected. Again, as this is the port of distribution for a very large tract of country,

containing in the neighborhood of sixty millions of people, and as more than one kind of all the piece goods shipped to China is distributed through this port, it would be a great saving to both merchant and consumer if that portion of this trade supplied by the United States could be shipped direct from New York to Chefoo and Tientsin, thereby avoiding the payment at Shanghai of tonnage, wharfage, storage, and commission dues, equal at least to the freight from the home port to Shanghai. In addition to this, by direct shipment the heavy charges of coast freight, amounting to $15 a ton at some seasons of the year, would be saved. The freight would be no more from New York to Chefoo than from the former port to Shanghai. Then, again, at Chefoo the ship would have no pilotage or tonnage to pay, while at Shanghai she has both. Vessels might be employed carrying 500 or 600 tons, which would not draw more than 10 or 11 feet of water, and could come direct to Tientsin. Such vessels might be induced to make Tientsin their port of destination on a small advance on freight now paid to Shanghai, as the pilotage and towage is greater from Taku to Tientsin than it is from Woosung to Shanghai. These are questions which must sooner or later enter into the carrying trade with this port.

While the profits of the American merchants on piece goods are indeed small, yet by producing a superior quality of such goods they are establishing their trade upon a basis which will eventually challenge all serious competition; even now that economy which purchases the best articles as the cheapest in the end is rapidly gaining the confidence of the Chinese, as may be seen in the growing demand for American drills. Foreign goods are bought and sold by the Chinese by weight, as well as measurement, just as native goods are bought and sold, and hence the quality is judged in a great measure by their weight. American drills weigh just as much after washing as they did before, but it is not so with the English, for there is a very perceptible difference in their appearance as well as in their weight after their washing. It is this difference which speaks so forcibly in favor of the American cotton; and so long as the American manufacturers continue to pursue their present course, the confidence already established in their goods will continue to grow. I am aware that this view of the case is not shared by every one. In a recent report made by one of Her Britannic Majesty's consuls in China he gives utterance to his opinion upon this subject in the following language:

> American manufacturers have as yet steadily set their faces against sizing, facing, and other abominations, but they do not know the Eastern market yet, and if the trade in honest cottons does not show better results in the future than it has in the past, they must eventually have to suit their stuffs to the prices the Chinese will pay or take their goods to another market.

Perhaps the consul cannot be blamed for the utterance of his opinion, as it is expressed in the interest of the British merchants. At the same time I should deeply regret to see American merchants act upon it, for the very day they begin the adulteration of their cloth, that day will begin their decline, which will continue until they are driven from this market, and the reasons are obvious. The United States produce the best quality of cotton in the world; with skilled labor and machinery equal to the best. As a legitimate result, her cloths should be superior. While the English merchants mix with the cotton they receive from the the United States a cheaper and much inferior cotton imported from India and elsewhere, with good sizing, and with skilled labor and machinery equal to any, they can produce an inferior quality of goods cheaper than the United States manufacturer can. Hence, the only

safety for this branch of American trade with China is to force competition for the best quality of cotton goods. Neither have the American merchants anything to fear from the manufacture of cotton goods in China, out of native cotton, with foreign looms and operatives, for the texture of Chinese cotton being coarser and shorter of fiber than that grown in the United States, the cloths are bound to be coarser and of an inferior quality, being in fact only a somewhat finer quality to that now produced from native looms, and hence it can never satisfy the demand which is being created here for the finer American drills. I am induced to make these observations because of the fact that some uneasiness has been manifested on the part of our merchants, through the home papers, on this subject, owing, perhaps, to the efforts which are now being made to erect cotton mills at Shanghai for the manufacture of cotton cloths from native cotton. The more intelligent opinion is that, in the event such mills are established in China, their opposition will be to the native products rather than otherwise. It is not the competition of the English, German, or native merchant that the American merchants in cotton fabrics have to fear in their efforts to establish a trade in the future with China which will be permanent and which will be alike beneficial to consumer and producer, but it is the illegal transit and lekin taxes by which all foreign imports are now being dwarfed and opposed.

O. N. DENNY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tientsin, January 26, 1880.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN, OF KANAGAWA.

It has been impossible to prepare at an earlier date a reply to Department circular of the 19th March last upon the subject of the cotton trade of Japan.

Herewith I forward as complete answers to the various questions proposed as I am able to give from the somewhat defective statistics with which we have to deal in this country, and from such information as I could elicit from the foreign merchants at this port.

In 1878 Great Britain exported to Japan between 33,000,000 and 34,000,000 pounds of cotton yarn; about 32,000,000 pounds from England, and the balance from India; aggregate value about $7,000,000.

1. Of this, all but about 300 pounds were brought to Yokohama.

2. The importation is in bales of 400 pounds each of English and Bombay spinnings, each bale containing 40 bundles of 10 pounds each. It consists largely of "mock-water" yarn. There is some "water-twist," but the exact proportion I have been unable to ascertain. These distinctions, and others known in the home markets, are not recognized by the Japanese; they buy simply on the quality of the musters shown to them.

3. The numbers of this yarn were approximately as follows:

	Bales.
English, 16–24	50,800
English, 28–32	19,700
English, 38–42	2,800
Bombay, 20 and 10–18	10,000

The prices fluctuated considerably. The highest and lowest quotations are as follows:

	Lowest quotations.		Highest quotations.	
	Mex., per picul.	Gold, per pound.	Mex., per picul.	Gold, per pound.
	Dollars.	*Cents.*	*Dollars.*	*Cents.*
Nos. 16–24	25–29	17½–20	29–33½	20 –23
Nos. 28–32	29–32	20 –22	33–36	22½–25
Nos. 38–42	35–37	24 –25½	36–39	25 –27
Bombays	26–28	18 –19½	28–29½	19½–20½

A picul contains 133⅓ pounds.

The average assortment of the different counts is of 16–24–$\frac{16}{16B}$ $\frac{18}{16B}$ $\frac{20}{36B}$ $\frac{22}{16B}$ $\frac{24}{16B}$ in each 100 bales, of 28–32 and 38–42–$\frac{28 \text{ and } 30}{20B}$ $\frac{30 \text{ and } 40}{60B}$ $\frac{32 \text{ and } 42}{20B}$ in each 100 bales. At the beginning of 1878 the stock was about 2,500 bales and at the end 14,000 bales.

4. I have been unable to ascertain what proportion of the receipts are in "mule yarn," or that any is in pin cops. Some of it is back twisted or "reversed" yarn, and a very small portion of double twisted or "two fold" yarn. This last is at present used in 32 and 42 only; the "reverse" yarn for the most part in 16–24.

5. I have answered this above.

6. These yarns are converted into cloth mostly by native looms in the cottages of the peasantry all over the country. Sometimes the imported yarn is used alone, sometimes mixed with the native article—one used for the warp, the other the woof.

7. I forward such samples of cloth as I have been able to procure.

8. The qualities of the imported yarn are not uniform, the coarser varieties varying in value from 1½ to 3 cents per pound, according to supply and demand.

The difference is less in the finer numbers. Special manufacturers have no great preference.

The English yarn is usually purchased in Manchester, by commission agents, from various manufacturers, and assorted under certain tickets or chops, according to quality required. The chop is a standard on which the goods are sold, often without reference to sample and before arrival. Most firms here have their own chops, belonging to the different qualities they import.

9. But a few pounds of American yarn were brought to Japan in 1878 or since. The universal testimony is that it is too hard in the twist for the use of the Japanese, and entirely too expensive for the market.

I have heard some suggestion that if our yarn should be manufactured in a moister climate than it usually is, for instance in portions of the Southern States, it would prove softer and more fitted for use here, but I have reason to believe that the idea is of no value.

The cotton itself is soft and delicate enough, in fact more so than any other in the world, but the twist is too hard, and at present it appears to me the cotton itself as well as the manufacture is too high in cost.

10. Messrs. Jardine, Matheson & Co., Mollison, Fraser & Co., Findlay, Richardson & Co., Butterfield & Swire, Adamson, Bell & Co., all of

Yokohama, are among the responsible houses who, I believe, deal in these yarns.

11. Messrs. Walsh, Hall & Co. and Frazar & Co. are reliable American firms who deal in the same article. The latter is not, perhaps, strictly an American house, but its head in Yokohama is an American gentleman, and the house is therefore here classed as American.

12. Yarns are received both on account of merchants here and on consignment from shippers in Europe or India; but the bulk of receipts lately have been against orders from this side. The business is often done on joint account of shipper and seller.

13. (In reply to question 16.) Invoice charges on yarn from Europe, including freight, buying commission, and insurance, may be roughly estimated at 15 per cent. on first cost. Account sale charges, including duty, selling commission, storage, and fire insurance may be taken at 9 per cent. on selling price.

Consignments are often drawn against at 60 days sight. The rate of exchange on such drafts has varied between 3*s.* 10*d.* and 3*s.* 8*d.* per dollar. About 3*s.* 7*d.* may be taken as an ordinary rate.

Charges on yarns shipped to this port from the United States it is estimated would be, via Panama, freight, $15 gold per ton of 2,000 pounds; marine insurance, 1¾ per cent., and shipping charges as incurred. The charges here would be, of course, the same as the shipments from Europe, say, duty $1.61 per picul (133⅓ pounds), landing and one month's storage and fire insurance, $2 per bale. Storage and fire insurance after the first month, $1.25 per bale per month; commission 3½ per cent. Interest on outlay, 10 per cent. Exchange has fluctuated of late from 90 cents to 95 cents gold for $1 Mexican.

14. (In reply to question 18.) None of these yarns are used in Japan for the manufacture of rope lines, cords, or twine.

In 1879 the importation of cotton yarn was about 21,000,000 catties, or 28,000,000 pounds; from England, about 18,000,000 pounds, and the balance from India. The falling off in the amount from 1878 was over 5,000,000 pounds. England sent about 7,500,000 pounds less, and India about 2,000,000 pounds more. This last is mostly the cheap Bombay yarn, the consumption of which is rapidly increasing in Japan. It is esteemed on account of the softness of its thread and its loose twist. It also takes the dye much more readily than harder and more tightly twisted yarn, thus effecting a saving of both time and expense.

English yarns are mostly composed of a mixture of American and Indian yarns.

It is possible if we should make a similar mixture, taking a portion of cheaper cotton, and making our twist less hard, we might compete for a portion of the trade with Japan. The conditions of success are softness and cheapness, and it is for our manufacturers to consider whether the experiment is worth the trial.

The import duty on cotton yarn in Japan is 5 buns or 1¼ yen per picul of 133⅓ pounds.

A report prepared and published in Japanese by the agricultural and commercial bureau of the government is before me, showing the amount and value of the cotton and sugar crops in the country, and the amounts of each imported. It appears to me of sufficient interest to warrant making a translation of so much as refers to cotton a part of this report. Accordingly I have had the same prepared, and it reads as follows:

The first cotton is said to have been brought into Japan by a Konglong (India) ship in the 18th year of Hereki, under the reign of the Emperor Kanuun (1441 Japanese era, or about 781 A. D.), and the seed was planted in the following year in the southern parts of Japan, but it did not grow. The second importation of seed is said to have

been made by a Portuguese ship in the 11th year of Temmon (2192 Japanese era, or about 1532 A. D.), but there is no reliable authority for this. The third importation was made in the year of Bu-roku, in the reign of the Emperor Yōzei 2d (2252 Japanese era, or about 1592 A. D.), and the cotton has since then been planted and cultivated in different parts of Japan, but there were no reliable statistics kept up to the 7th Meiji (1874).

The cotton crop of 1878 (11th Meiji) was 29,975,771 catties (1⅓ pounds) in each national division, as follows:

	Catties.
Ki-nai division	7,359,656
Tōkai-dō division	8,893,868
Tōsan-dō division	2,211,494
Sanyō-dō division	6,537,146
Nan-kai-dō division	2,118,764
Nokaimo-dō, San-in-dō, Saikai-dō divisions	2,854,843
Total	29,975,771

Cotton consumption, 1875–1878.

	Catties.
Cotton crop 1875–1878	115,692,512
Cotton imports, including cotton goods valued at 44,417,022 yen	132,037,919
Total	247,640,431

The total value of these two was 89,097,036 yen, and the consumption averaged each year 61,910,107 catties, equal to 1.78 catty for each man of the population of 1876.

Imports of cotton and yarns, 1873–1878.

	Catties.
China	25,144,488
England	83,008,459
Prussia	352,812
America	91,374
France	505,975
Denmark	15,100
Germany	43,540
British colonies	109,815
British India	1,127,125
Canada	188
Other places	1,402,550
Total	112,275,598

Total value of imports, 1868 to 1877 (cotton being $\frac{36}{100}$), 89,586,621 yen.

Quotations of Japan cotton.

Country.	Name.	Tokio, December, 1879.		Osaka, January, 1880.	
		Momme per yen.	Yen per picul.	Momme per yen.	Yen per picul.
Hidachi	Hon-migaki	710	22.53	780	20.50
Mikoua	Jō-me	720	22.22	780	20.50
Owari	do	730	21.91	790	20.25
Tatomi	do	735	21.76	815	19.63
Shinioua	Ke-giri	770	20.77	790	20.25
Musashi	Oshi-nishiki	790	20.25	790	20.25
Kai	Ko-nishiki	730	21.91	790	20.25
Mikaeva	Bunko ire	770	20.77	800	20.00
Owari	do	780	20.50	810	19.75
Totomi	do	790	20.25	835	19.16
Shimosa	Itakuchi	800	20.00	835	19.16
Musashi	do			835	19.16
Sétsu	Saka-jome			715	22.36
Kawachi	do			750	21.33
Yamashiro	do			740	21.62
Yamato	do			800	20.00
Idzumi	do			755	21.19
Harima	do			780	20.50

The total imports of cotton yarns in 1878 amounted to 20,913,440 catties, and there were in Japan only seven yarn mills of foreign style in operation which could produce 590,625 catties in a year of 300 working days, each mill producing 281¼ catties in average a day, or 84,375 catties a year. Now, to make the same quantity of yarn imported in this year it is necessary to establish 241 new mills.

In the foregoing it has been shown what quantity has been imported to Japan up to the 11th of Meiji, and it has amounted to 5,325,455 yen. We shall now try what would be the result in the next ten years if we established yarn mills to supply the demand.

To establish the mills we will probably require about 10,480,664 yen. This exceeds by about 5,150,000 yen the value of 1878 importation. But all the money required for establishing the mills does not go out of the country. About one-half will go out for the purchase of machinery from foreign countries; the other half will remain in Japan for working expenses. This 5,000,000 yen will amount to 50,000,000 in ten years.

The above has been based on the calculation that all the cotton to be used is of native production. But suppose that all the native production is not sufficient to make the same quantity of yarn (209,000 piculs) imported in 1878, and that we have to import 100,000 piculs every year (at 15 sen per catty), we will then pay out to foreign countries about 1,500,000 yen in ten years.

Again, suppose that we have to import all the cotton required to make 209,000 piculs of yarn, we will then have to import about 2,190,000 piculs of cotton, and pay out about 32,850,000 yen in ten years, and we thus make a profit of 50,000,000 yen.

If we now deduct 32,000,000 yen for the cost of cotton, and 10,700,000 yen for the cost of machinery and for interest, we shall then make a profit of about 6,000,000 yen in ten years. It may not be therefore profitable to establish the mills depending on the importation of cotton from foreign countries.

I forward herewith samples of cotton bolls raised in Japan, and of yarn made in a manufactory at Osaka, run with foreign machinery. Also samples of cotton cloth made in the country.

I have not gathered any very large numbers of these samples, as it is exceedingly difficult to do so, and the same have heretofore been forwarded to the Department from our consulate at Hiogo.

At Gifu I was shown a boll raised from seed obtained in the United States, and was told that this seed is much more productive and the cotton much superior to any other.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

THOS. B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Kanagawa, Japan, December 16, 1880.

[Inclosures.]

No. 1. Cotton bolls from vicinity of Yokohama and Tokio.
No. 2. Cotton bolls from vicinity of Osaka.
No. 3. Cleaned cotton from Osaka mill.
No. 4. Bombay yarn, value $31.51 per picul.
No. 5. English yarn, "mock water," value $35.50 per picul.
No. 6. English yarn, $35.25 per picul.
No. 7. English yarn, $32.50 per picul.
No. 8. English yarn, $31.50 per picul.
No. 9. English yarn, $35 per picul.
No. 10. Yarn from Osaka mill, 50 yen per picul.
No. 11. Yarn from Osaka mill, 48 yen per picul. (A yen is now worth 55 cents, gold.)
No. 12. Cloth, from foreign yarn only.
No. 13. Cloth, from purely Japanese yarn.
No. 14. Cloth, from purely Japanese yarn.
No. 15. Cloth, from Japanese yarn.
No. 16. Cloth, from half foreign, half Japanese twist.

COTTON AND COTTON MANUFACTURES IN THE DISTRICT OF OSAKA AND HIOGO.

REPORT BY CONSUL STAHEL.

The total produce of raw cotton in Japan in 1878 amounted to 91,977,003 kin (kin is a catty equal to 1⅓ pounds), valued at 6,722,321 yen.

In this neighborhood one tan (300 tsubo, a tsubo equal to 36 square feet) of land will produce an average of 300 kin (catty) of raw cotton, or 120 kin of ginned, valued at 25.60 yen at the farmer's door, and about 175 kin of cotton seed, worth 1.90 yen. From this must be deducted the cost of ginning, which is a trifle over 1 yen per kin, or 1.27 yen for the 120 kin, leaving a net sum of 26.23 yen for the producer per tan. Deducting from this item the cost of manure and irrigation and taxes, amounting together to 18.05 yen, the net profit per tan is 8.18 yen.

The crop which generally follows cotton in this district is the sweet potato, the product of which is 1,625 kin per tan, valued at 9.10 yen. From this amount must be deducted the cost of manure and proportion of taxes, amounting to 5.25 yen, leaving a balance of 3.85 yen, or a total profit of 12.03 yen annually per tan. The above calculations apply only to farms cultivated by their owners.

When cotton is manufactured into cloth (not dyed), the cost is about as follows: Beating, 3½ sen per kin; spinning, 16½ sen; weaving, 20 sen; cost of raw material, 20 sen; and for dyed cloth, an addition of 30 sen. This makes a total of 60 sen per kin of ginned cotton if manufactured into undyed cloth, and 90 sen if dyed. Of course the figures for dyeing are only approximate, as some pieces of cloth do not cost more than 15 sen, whilst others run up to four times that amount. One kin goes to a piece, which is about 11 yards in length and 13 inches in breadth.

As before stated, the total quantity of raw cotton produced in Japan during the year 1878 was 91,977,003, or 36,790,801 kin of ginned. Of this latter quantity, about one-fourth (or 9,197,700 kin) is used for making thread (averaging in value 25 sen per kin), amounting to 2,266,425 yen; of the remaining 27,593.101 kin, one-third was manufactured into undyed and two-thirds into dyed cloth, the total value of which, at 60 sen and 90 sen per kin, respectively, was 22,074,480 yen.

J. STAHEL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hiogo, Japan, 1880.

Detailed statement describing samples from Osaka and Hiogo.

A.—COTTON YARN.

Number of sample.	Article.	Number of yarn.	Obtained from—	Received.	Price per picul in Mexican.	Average annual consumption.
						*Piculs.**
1	English mock water twist	16	Comes & Co	July 30, 1880.		
2	do	18	do	do		
3	do	20	do	do	$30 50	100,000
4	do	22	do	do		
5	do	24	do	do		
6	do	28	do	do		
7	do	30	do	do	33 50	100,000
8	do	32	do	do		
9	English water twist	20	do	do	31 50	100,000
10	Bombay mule twist	14	do	do	28 50	100,000
11	do	16	do	do	29 25	100,000
12	do	20	do	do	30 50	100,000
13	Japan machine-made	12	Sakai factory	Aug. 18, 1880.	38 50	100,000
14	do	12½	do	do	37 60	100,000
15	do	13	do	do	37 30	100,000
16	do	....	Himeji factory	do	.....	.....
17	Japanese hand-made	....	Japanese	do	.....	Very large.

*One picul equal to 133⅓ pounds.

B.—JAPAN-MADE CLOTHS OF MIXED YARNS.

Number of sample.	Article.	Obtained from—	Received.	Width in inches.	Length in yards.	Price per piece in Mexican.	Average annual consumption.
18	Japanese-made cloths of foreign, or partially foreign, yarn.	Walsh, Hall & Co.	Aug. 10, 1880.	14	11	$0 65	Large.
19	do	do	do	14	11	0 65	do
20	do	do	do	14	11	0 43	do
21	do	do	do	14	11	0 65	do
22	do	do	do	14	11		
23	do	do	do	13⅜	12		
24	do	do	do	13⅜	12		
25	do	do	do	13⅜	12	0 86	do
26	do	do	do	14	12		
27	do	do	do	14	12		
28	do	do	do	14	12		
29	do	do	do	14	12		
30	do	do	do	14	12		
31	do	do	do	14	12		
32	do	do	do	14	12		
33	do	do	do	14	12	0 75	do
34	do	do	do	14	12		
35	do	do	do	14	12		
36	do	do	do	14	12	0 84	do
37	do	do	do	14	12		
38	do	do	do	13⅛	12	0 97	do
39	do	do	do	12⅝	11	0 70	do
40	do	do	do	13⅜	12	2 82	do
41	do	do	do	13⅜	12	2 82	do
42	do	do	do	13⅜	12	2 95	do
43	do	do	do	13⅛	12	1 90	do
44	do	do	do	13⅛	12	1 90	do
45	Japanese-made canton flannel, half foreign, half native yarn.	Comes & Co	July 30, 1880.	13⅛	10	0 45	do
46	Same, entirely foreign yarn	do	do	30	30	2 70	do
47	Japanese-made shirtings, half English, half Japan yarn.	do	do	15	11⅛	0 20	do
48	do	do	do	15	11⅛	0 30	do
49	Japan-made bleached cloth, half foreign and half native yarn.	Walsh, Hall & Co.	Aug. 24, 1880.	12	10⅛	0 31	do
50	do	do	do	12	11	0 39½	do
51	Japanese make of entirely English yarn, Turkey red. Design made by Japanese here.	do	do	12	10⅛	0 47	do
52	do	do	do	12	10⅛	0 31	do
53	do	do	Aug. 25, 1880.	30	24	1 75	do

Detailed statement describing samples from Osaka and Hiogo—Continued.

C.—UNBLEACHED FOREIGN COTTON GOODS.

Number of sample.	Article.	Obtained from—	Received.	Width in inches.	Length in yards.	Price per piece in Mexican.	Average annual consumption.
54	English gray shirtings	Fearon, Low & Co	Aug. 19, 1880	39	38½	$2 20	
55	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	2 30	
56	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	2 15	
57	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	2 10	
58	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	2 00	
59	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	1 87½ to 1 90	
60	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	1 82½	*$1,400,000 Mexican.
61	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	1 82½	
62	....do	Comes & Co	July 30, 1880	45	38	2 52	
63	....do	....do	....do	39	38	1 85	
64	....do	....do	....do	39	38	1 55	
65	English T-cloth	Fearon, Low & Co.	Aug. 9, 1880	39	38½	1 65	
66	....do	....do	....do	39	38½	1 72½	
67	....do	....do	....do	33	24	1 72½	$180,000 Mexican.
68	....do	Comes & Co	July 30, 1880	32	24	1 70	
69	....do	Walsh, Hall & Co	Aug. 25, 1880	32	24	1 65	
70	American cotton duck†	....do	....do	22	(†)	40	
71	....do	....do	....do	22	.....	38	
72	....do	J. D. Carroll & Co	....do	22	.....	36	
73	....do	....do	....do	22	.....	35	$20,000 Mexican.
74	....do	....do	....do	22	.....	32	
75	American sail drill †	....do	....do	28½	(†)	25	
76	....do	....do	....do	30	.....	18	
77	English drill	Walsh, Hall & Co.	....do	29	40	2 45	Large.

*All kinds of foreign gray shirting.
†Sold by the yard.

D.—BLEACHED FOREIGN COTTON GOODS.

78	English white shirting	Comes & Co.	July 30, 1880	36	40	$1 90	$30,000 Mexican.
9	....do	....do	....do	36	40	2 70	
80	....do	....do	....do	36	40	3 30	
81	English cambrics	....do	....do	42	12	80	
82	....do	Walsh, Hall & Co.	Aug. 25, 1880	35	40	3 00	Small.
83	....do	....do	....do	35	40	3 25	
84	....do	....do	....do	26	40	4 00	
85	English lawns	....do	....do	42	12	70	$80,000 Mexican.

E.—DYED, PRINTED, AND COLORED FOREIGN COTTON GOODS.

						Per yd.	
86	English silesias	Walsh, Hall & Co.	Aug. 25, 1880	30	30	$0 08	
87	....do	....do	....do	30	30	08	
88	....do	....do	....do	40	40	10⅓	Considerable.
89	....do	....do	....do	40	40	10½	
90	....do	....do	....do	40	40	10½	
91	Silesias	Comes & Co	July 30, 1880	32	32	07	
						P'r p'ce.	
92	English calico	....do	....do	30	24	1 65	
93	....do	....do	....do	30	24	1 65	
94	....do	....do	....do	30	24	1 80	Large.
95	....do	....do	....do	30	24	2 20	
96	....do	....do	....do	30	24	2 20	Do.
97	....do	Walsh, Hall & Co.	Aug. 25, 1880	30–31	24	2 20	
98	....do	....do	....do	30–31	24	to	Do.
99	....do	....do	....do	30–31	24	2 25	
100	English chintz	....do	....do	30–31	24		
101	....do	....do	....do	29	24	2 20	
102	....do	....do	....do	29	24	to	Do.
103	....do	....do	....do	29	24	2 30	
104	English prints	....do	....do	28	24		
105	....do	....do	....do	28	24		
106	....do	....do	....do	28	24	1 65	Do.
107	....do	....do	....do	28	24		
108	....do	....do	....do	28	24		

Detailed statement describing samples from Osaka and Hiogo—Continued.

E.—DYED, PRINTED, AND COLORED FOREIGN COTTON GOODS.

Number of sample.	Article.	Obtained from—	Received.	Width in inches.	Length in yards.	Price per piece in Mexican.	Average annual consumption.
109	Gentian shirting	Comes & Co	July 30, 1880	39	40	$2 95	Consid'ble.
110	English Turkey red	do	do	30	24	1 55	$280,000 Mexican.
111	English cotton sateens	do	do	32	30	10 cts. p. yd.	$180,000 Mexican.
112	do	do	do	32	30		
113	do	do	do	32	30		
114	Swiss taffactelass	Walsh, Hall & Co.	Aug. 27, 1880	42–43	12	1 70 Mexican.	$60,000 Mexican.
115	do	do	do	42–43	12		
116	do	do	do	42–43	12		
117	do	do	do	42–43	12		

F.—JAPANESE COTTON GOODS FROM NATIVE YARNS.

118	White cotton cloth	Sakai	Aug. 23, 1880	14	12	45	Very large.
119	do	Walsh, Hall & Co.	Aug. 25, 1880	13	10½	42½	Do.
120	Gray cotton cloth	do	do	13	10½	45	Do.
121	do	do	do	13	10½	42½	Do.
122	Japanese duck	Sakai	Aug. 22, 1880	13	8	1 60	Do.
123	Japanese flannel	Kawachi	do	13	9¾	94	Do.
124	do	do	do	13	9¾	94	Do.
125	Japanese cloth	Hanina	do	13	12	1 04	Do.
126	do	do	do	13	12	43	Do.
127	do	do	do	13	12	43	Do.

J. STAHEL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hiogo, Japan, August 26, 1880.

AUSTRALASIA.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF VICTORIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL SPENCER, OF MELBOURNE.

In compliance with instructions contained in Mr. Evarts's circular dispatch of March 19 relative to the cotton trade of foreign countries, I have the honor herewith to submit my preliminary report on the same so far as it relates to my consular district.

1. In reply to questions from 1 to 12 inclusive, I have to say that as there are no cotton factories in Victoria, nor, so far as I can learn, in Australia, there is no demand for cotton yarns , or, if so, it is extremely limited.

2. By a reference to the custom-house returns it appears that the value of the imports of cotton goods into Victoria for 1879 was as follows:

Cotton piece goods	$2,383,913
Cotton mixed with wool	37,423
Other manufactures of wool	177,977
Total	2,599,313

In 1878 the total value of cotton goods imported into Victoria amounted to $3,227,765. The bulk of these goods was imported, either directly

or indirectly from England, whilst only a very small percentage, representing a value of $18,308, or only about three-fifths of one per cent. of the whole amount, came from the United States.

From this point of view the outlook would appear rather discouraging, but it is not necessary to look far for some of the causes which have contributed to this unpromising result.

From information received at this consulate from merchants who were formerly engaged in importing cotton goods directly from America, it appears that some years since such goods were decidedly popular in this market, and in good demand. But the importers, who drew their supplies directly from New York and Boston, soon found that the wholesale dry-goods merchants in this city were able to undersell them, the latter having purchased the same brand of goods in London at lower prices than were current, at the same date, in the American market. The importers naturally inferred that these goods, representing the surplus stocks of American manufacture, had been "slaughtered," or sacrificed, in the London market with a view of maintaining prices at home. But whatever the explanation may have been, the effect was highly prejudicial to the further development of the American cotton trade in Australia. Merchants who had imported their goods directly from Boston or New York, when brought into competition with those who had purchased the same goods at lower prices in London, were compelled to sell out at a sacrifice, and the trade was abandoned. They represent that when they import certain well known brands of English goods, they have no fears that any one else can purchase them at a lower figure, and undersell them in the market. For this reason, such English brands as Horrocks, and other well known manufacturers, command a preference over American goods of the same price and quality, and it has been found impossible to dispose of large parcels of the latter unless by making a concession on ruling prices.

This prejudice would no doubt be overcome in course of time, provided American cottons were shipped out regularly and were invariably available in the market at fixed prices. Hitherto, however, the trade has been intermittent, as American goods, for the most part, have only been shipped out here when domestic production has exceeded the home consumption. At present the direct shipments from the United States to this market are almost exclusively confined to the Wamsutta mills, New Bedford, Mass., and consist mainly of consignments by the manufacturers to their agents here to be disposed of on their own account.

There appears to be no reason, aside from the one already named, why America should not compete favorably with England in the Australian cotton trade; but it would probably be the work of time, and might result in pecuniary loss at the outset. American cotton goods, at present imported, compare favorably with English manufactures of a similar description, and have given great satisfaction to the consumers. These consist, for the most part, of the finer qualities of shirtings and sheetings, plain and twilled, and of cambric muslins. The great demand, however, is for lower qualities than have hitherto been sent out here, such as are usually shipped in large quantities from England, but whether this class of goods can be supplied by the American manufacturers at a profit to themselves remains to be seen.

Cotton prints of American manufacture have not been imported here to any extent, and the probability of establishing a market for them seems problematical. England sets the fashions for this class of goods, and the principal houses here have their resident partners in London. By the use of the telegraph and several fast lines of steamers, merchants

can replenish their stocks within seven weeks of giving their orders, whilst the average passage of sailing vessesl from New York and Boston is over three months. Besides, there is no colored population here, as in India and the West Indies, to create a demand for unsalable or unfashionable patterns.

3. In compliance with instructions contained in paragraphs 13, 14, and 15 of the circular dispatch, I have forwarded to the department, under a separate cover, 123 samples of gray and brown cotton cloth, bleached cotton sheetings and shirtings, as well as dyed, colored, and printed goods, and herewith transmit a detailed statement* containing their numbers, the dates of their procurement, width in inches, length in yards, together with either the wholesale or manufacturer's prices. I have not given the retail prices, because, varying as they do with the season and locality, it would simply be misleading. Given the manufacturer's price, the approximate wholesale and retail prices become simply a question of addition and multiplication. The costs and charges on cotton goods imported here from England amount to from 5 to 7½ per cent. on invoice value. Wholesale prices are about 25 per cent. on manufacturer's prices by the piece and from 15 to 17½ per cent. by the bale; retail prices on good calicoes and sheetings vary from 30 to 40 per cent. on manufacturer's prices.

The names of merchants furnishing me with samples I withhold at their own request, otherwise I would not have been able to have obtained them at all.

4. In reply to question 16, I herewith transmit *pro forma* accounts of actual sales marked A and B.

5. As Melbourne is the only port of entry for my consular district, it appears unnecessary to give the names of the cities, towns, &c., where cotton goods are sold or consumed, as the quantity necessary for their annual supply is included in the imports already given for Victoria.

6. The following firms may be mentioned as reliable and responsible commission merchants who are advantageously located for the introduction of American cotton goods into this market: Hewell & Co.; Lord & Hughes; Osborne, Cushing & Co.; W. W. Conche & Co., all of Melbourne, the last named being an English firm, the other three American.

O. M. SPENCER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE GENERAL,
Melbourne, September 21, 1881.

A.—*Pro forma account sales, charges, net proceeds of cottons received ex ——— cap ——— ——— from New York, and sold by the undersigned by and on account of the concerned.*

	£.	s.	d.	
Sold 59 cases cottons	1,172	18	2	= $5,707 96

CHARGES.

	£	s.	d.	
Customs entry		3	6	
Wharfage rates	2	4	3	
Freight per bill lading	38	16	0	
Cartage from Sandridge to store	2	0	4	
Labor required in delivering and opening cases, &c	2	4	2	
Storage	8	16	4	
Advertisements £1 15*s.*; fire insurance £2 18*s.* 8*d.*	4	13	8	
Commission and guaranty, 7½ per cent	87	19	4	= $714 80

* Marked C.

B.—*Pro forma sale of sheeting received per ——— from ——— U. S. A., per order and for account of whom it may concern.*

(Terms three and four months.)

40 cases bleached 4-4 sheeting, 59,960 yards £1,027 4 7

CHARGES.

Freight per bill of lading				£29	6	3
Custom-house entry, 2*s.* 6*d.*; wharfage, £3 3*s.* 9*d.*; drayage, £2 17*s.* 2*d.*				6	3	5
Fire insurance, 6*s.* 6*d.*; advertising, 2*s.*				0	8	6
Marine insurance effected by shippers				0	0	0
Bank discount on £513 12*s.* 4*d.*, three months, at 2 per cent	£10	5	5			
Bank discount on £513 12*s.* 3*d.* four months, at 3 per cent	15	8	2			
				25	13	7
Storage and labor, receiving, sampling, and delivering				1	2	9
Commission, 5 per cent., and guaranty, 2½ per cent.				77	0	10
						139 15 4
					£	887 9 3
Exchange on a 60 days' bill on London at ¼ per cent. premium						6 13 2
Net proceeds					£	880 16 1

E. and O. E.
MELBOURNE.

C.—*Detailed statement showing the description, width, length, and ruling prices of cotton goods in the Melbourne market on September* 1, 1880.

Description.	Width.	Length.	Manufacturer's prices.	Wholesale prices.	Remarks.
	Inches.	*Yards.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	
I. Horrocks' long cloth:					
a	36	42	6¾	.....	This being a well-known long cloth, the Melbourne wholesale houses quote it at manufacturer's list prices.
b	36	42	8¼	.....	
c	36	42	9¼	.....	
d	36	42	10¾	.....	
e	36	42	12¾	.....	
f	36	42	13	.....	
g	36	42	15	.....	
h	36	42	15½	.....	
i	36	42	17⅛	.....	
j	36	42	17⅞	.....	
k	36	42	20¾	.....	
l	36	42	25¾	.....	
II. Manchester goods:					
a	36	50	8½	.....	
b	36	50	9¾	.....	
c	36	50	11¼	.....	
III. Manchester goods:					
a	36	44	8¾	.....	
b	36	44	10½	.....	
c	36	44	11⅛	.....	
d	36	44	13¼	.....	
e	36	44	20	.....	
IV. Manchester goods:					
a	36	60	9	.....	
b	36	60	10¾	.....	
c	36	60	11¾	.....	
d	36	60	13	.....	
e	36	60	14¾	.....	

C.—*Detailed statement showing the description, &c.*—Continued.

Description.	Width.	Length.	Manufacturer's prices.	Wholesale prices.	Remarks.
	Inches.	*Yards.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	
V. Manchester goods:					
a	36	50	10½	.....	
b	36	50	9½	.....	
c	36	50	8	.....	
d	36	50	7	.....	
VI. Manchester goods	68	60	.....	25	
VII. Manchester goods:					
a	36	50	11	.....	
b	36	50	13	.....	
c	36	50	15	.....	
VIII. American goods:					
a	36	44	11½	.....	
b	36	44	12	.....	
IX. Manchester goods:					
a	90	44	21½	.....	
b	90	44	23½	.....	
c	90	44	27½	.....	
X. Scotch goods:					
a	72	44	29	.....	
b	72	44	30	.....	
c	72	44	27	.....	
d	72	44	29	.....	
XI. Manchester goods:					
a	32	80	.....	8	
b	32	80	.....	8½	
c	32	80	.....	9½	
XII. Manchester goods:					
a	36	80	.....	10	
b	36	80	.....	11½	
XIII. Manchester goods	54	50	18	.....	
XIV. Manchester goods:					
a	72	50	17½	.....	
b	72	50	22	.....	
XV. Manchester goods:					
a	72	50	22	.....	
b	72	50	26	.....	
XVI. Manchester goods:					
a	72	60	.....	21	
b	72	60	.....	26	
XVII. Manchester goods	72	60	.....	25	
XVIII. English goods:					
a	36	50	7	.....	
b	36	50	8	.....	
c	36	50	8½	.....	
d	36	50	9	.....	
e	36	50	9½	.....	
f	36	50	10	.....	
g	36	50	10	.....	
XIX. English goods:					
a	40	50	15½	.....	
b	40	50	18	.....	
XX. English goods:					
a	40	32	28	.....	
b	40	32	36	.....	
c	40	32	38	.....	
d	40	32	58	.....	
XXI. Manchester goods	30	45	10	.....	3 samples.
XXII. Manchester goods	30	45	14	.....	6 samples.
XXIII. French goods	30	45	14	.....	7 samples.
XXIV. French goods	30	42	16	.....	14 samples.
XXV. Scotch goods	32	60	13	.....	8 samples.
XXVI. French goods	30	42	25	.....	12 samples.
XXVII. American goods:					
a	36	44	*15	11½	
b	36	44	*15	11½	
c	36	44	*16	12	
d	36	44	*16	12	
e	36	44	*12	.....	

*Retail prices.

COTTON MANUFACTURES IN NEW ZEALAND.

TWO REPORTS BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

1.

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of circular, dated March 19, 1880, referring to the sale of cotton goods in foreign countries, with especial reference to cotton yarns.

In reply I have to say that there are no cotton yarns of either English or American or any other manufacture imported into this colony, there being no cotton goods manufactured in New Zealand.

It is next to an impossibility to give anything like a correct description of the different kinds of cotton goods used here, or to form anything like a just estimate of the value of any particular kind. These goods are passed through the customs under the general head of cottons, and are subject to a duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem.

I inclose herewith an abstract of the general imports of cotton and cotton goods at the port of Auckland, New Zealand, for the year ending December 31, 1879. It will be seen from this abstract that the value of cotton and cotton goods which arrived at the port of Auckland during the year 1879 amounted to the sum of £69,546, and that the whole value of these importations from Great Britain amounted to £63,222, while the total value of importation of cotton goods from the United States amounted to only £1,357.

The collector of customs (Mr. Thomas Hill) at Auckland estimates the entire importation of cotton goods to New Zealand to be about £240,226 per annum. This estimate appears small for this colony, as the official European and Chinese population is set down at 470,000, and the native or Maori population does not number less than 60,000.

The merchants here, while expressing a desire to co-operate with me in my efforts to increase the trade and commerce between the United States and New Zealand, are somewhat shy of giving me any definite information as to the character of goods they import from the United States, and all the large dealers here in cotton goods positively refuse to furnish me with samples of the different kinds of cotton goods required in your circular. I have obtained, however, through Mr. D. McIntyre, the United States consular agent at Wellington, New Zealand, a line of samples obtained from Turnbull, Smith & Co., at that place. These samples comprise, in the opinion of Mr. McIntyre, who is an old New Zealand merchant, the principal kinds of cotton goods used in this colony.

Mr. McIntyre furnishes me with the following list of firms at Wellington engaged in the cotton trade, whom he regards as entirely trustworthy:

List of English merchants engaged in the importation and sale of cotton goods at Wellington, New Zealand.—Turnbull, Smith & Co., Thomson, Shannon & Co., Jacob Joseph & Co., Joseph, Nathan & Co., Kircaller & Steins.

List of English merchants engaged in the importation and sale of cotton goods at Auckland.—James Clark & Co., L. D. Nathan & Co., McArthur & Co., and Owen & Graham.

In regard to question No. 13 of circular, I have to say that nearly all

cotton goods are sold by the yard. I am unable to give the exact qualities and quantity for the reason heretofore mentioned.

Question No. 14. I send herewith, under separate cover, marked "A," the samples obtained from Messrs. Turnbull, Smith & Co. Samples of gray, Nos. 1–5, are goods most in demand for single widths, and 6–10 for double widths or sheeting. 11–15 bleached sheeting are makes which sell best, but double the quantity of twilled is sold to that of plain goods. 16–23 are among the most salable, but Crewdson's and Horrockse's manufacture form a large portion of the consumption.

Numbers A, B, and H, in Horrockse's, and 2, 3, A, A, in Crewdson's are in demand in about equal proportions of 32 and 36 inches.

American cottons most in demand are Wamsutta and Eldorado, in sheetings. Sail canvas is not used, the English linen being preferred. Many importers of New Zealand have given trial orders for American shirtings and sheetings, but did not meet with reasonable profits.

Question No. 15. Samples of printed cottons, 100 to 140, are in very general use. Pompadour prints are also in demand, but I am unable to procure samples. Samples of native prints, No. 130, are very salable. These goods are bought only by the native or Maori inhabitants, and their taste is very changeable, and importers exercise extreme caution in selecting suitable colors and patterns for them.

No. D, check shirtings, are salable in a limited quantity.

Question No. 16. A duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem is charged on cotton goods. This, together with the exchange and freight, &c., would make them cost fully 30 per cent. above the invoice prices in London.

In regard to question No. 22, I have to say that trade is at this time so quiet that few novelties in the way of styles are introduced here. As a rule the styles popular in England become popular here.

I hope to be able to forward to the department additional information upon this subject so soon as I can hear from the consular agents within my jurisdiction.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, September 10, 1880.

General imports of cotton and cotton goods at the port of Auckland for the year ending December 31, 1879.

Articles.	Quantity.	Packages.	Value.	£ s. d.	Remarks.
Cotton raw:					
Fiji Islands..... pounds.	2,198	.....	£58		
Navigator Islands .....do...	6,000	.....	150		
Cook Islands.....do...	6,242	.....	300		
Savage Islands.....do...	19,300	.....	482		
Total.....	33,740	.....	990	.....	Free.
Cotton waste:					
United Kingdom. packages.	41	.....	303		
New South Wales.....do...	13	.....	121		
Victoria ....do...	8	.....	80		
Fiji Islands.....do...	1	.....	10		
Total.....	63	.....	524	.....	Free.

General imports of cotton and cotton goods at the port of Auckland, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	Packages.	Value.				Remarks.
				£	s.	d.	
Cottons:							
United Kingdom..packages.	1,868	.....	£63,222				
New South Wales.....do...	11	.....	581				
Victoria .....do...	20	.....	632				
Ton .....do...	16	.....	343				
Unit[illegible]s America, At-lant[illegible] .....packages.	61	.....	1,357				
Rotumah .....do...	2	.....	33				
Navigators' Islands....do...	9	.....	319				
Total.....	1,987	2,521	66,487	6,438	8	0	10 per cent. ad valorem.
Cottons:							
United Kingdom..packages.	43	.....	1,373				
New South Wales.....do...	3	.....	135				
Victoria .....do...	1	.....	10				
Fiji Islands.....do...	1	.....	27				
Total.....	48	57	1,545	281	2	0	15 per cent. ad valorem.
			69,546	6,719	10	0	

SECOND REPORT OF CONSUL GRIFFIN.

I have the honor to inform you that, since my last communication upon the subject of the cotton trade of New Zealand, I have received from the secretary and inspector of customs of this colony the return of the quantity, value, and duty paid on cotton goods, and the quantity and value of cotton imported into New Zealand, which I inclose herewith marked inclosure No. 1.

It will be seen by the return that the actual amount of cotton goods imported into New Zealand for the year ending December 31, 1879, is £116,534, nearly $582,670. The actual value falls short of the estimate given me by Mr. Thos. Hill, the collector of customs of this port, by over £100,000, and I cannot account for this difference, except upon the ground that the collector here has included in his estimate many goods classed under the head of dressing not embraced by the secretary and inspector of customs in his official report on cotton goods.

I also inclose for your further information the import, export, and shipping returns of New Zealand, presented to both houses of the general assembly by command of his excellency the governor, Sir Hercules Robinson. This paper I have marked inclosure No. 2.

I also inclose a line of samples of cotton goods used in New Zealand, furnished me by William Rathay, esq., a leading retail dry goods merchant of this city. These samples are 21 in number, and the name of the manufacturer and the wholesale and retail price in English money are marked upon each sample. Mr. Rathay informs me in a note accompanying the samples that, as a general thing, the American cotton goods are too light in weight for this market, and that all the samples he has given me are of English manufacture. The samples are marked inclosure No. 3.

Mr. John Cosgrove, of Queen street, Auckland, also sends me a line of samples, which I inclose herewith, marked inclosure No. 4.

Mr. Cosgrove is of the opinion that he should have little difficulty in opening a large trade in sheetings and calicoes of American manufacture. He is convinced of the excellence and cheapness and superiority of their make, and regrets that the New York and Boston merchants do not

offer as favorable terms of credit as the London merchants with whom he does business. The credit system prevails here to an extraordinary extent. Any consumer of ordinary standing can obtain credit of from three to six months. Almost every one has a bank account, and it is a common thing to see a man draw a check for 20 shillings, a sum less than $5 in American money.

The colonial government follows the example of the people, and has adopted a borrowing policy almost unparalleled in the civilized world.

The New Zealand importer of American goods, in most cases, gets his banker to establish a credit for him in New York. This is done through the colonial bank, for which the banker charges him 1 per cent. The colonial banker then writes to the bank in New York with which he does business, and authorizes the latter to buy drafts on the New Zealand importer, provided they are accompanied by proper shipping documents, which really means the right of ownership to the goods supplied.

The New York commission merchant, when made acquainted with the character of the goods desired by the New Zealand importer, purchases the goods on the latter's account but, in his own name, ships and insures them, waits upon the New York banker who is authorized to buy his drafts, and hands him bill of lading and policy of insurance, accompanied by an order or draft on the New Zealand importer to pay the amount of invoice, with all charges, to the New York banker.

The latter buys the draft at the current rate of exchange on London. It is then sent to the London agent of the colonial bank, accompanied by shipping documents, and from thence to New Zealand, with a memorandum attached, instructing the colonial bank to collect the current rate of exchange between London and the colony. The bill is generally made payable in New Zealand at 60 days after sight. Merchandise coming to New Zealand from New York under this system is liable to the following charges:

1st. The payment of the commission merchant, ordinarily 2½ per cent., for purchasing the goods.

2d. The charge of the New Zealand or colonial bank for establishing a credit in New York in favor of the New Zealand importer's agent or commission merchant, ordinarily 1 per cent.

3d. The charge for exchange between New York and London, which varies according to the rates of exchange between those cities.

4th. The charge for exchange between London and New Zealand, which varies on a bill at 60 days from 4 to 6½ per cent. on the amount of the bill.

There are two alternatives for avoiding these charges for exchange, which I will mention.

1st. To send with the order for the goods a bank draft for their probable amount. The principal objection to this method is the uncertain period which elapses between the departure of vessels from New York for New Zealand ports and the consequent loss of interest on the money; besides which, some of the commission houses doing business with New Zealand are reported not to have large capital, and therefore it is sometimes deemed inexpedient to intrust large sums of money to them. Again, the New Zealand merchants are often not in a position to anticipate payments so long beforehand.

2d. To export goods from New Zealand to the United States, and so pay for American goods by exchange of products of the two countries. This is, of course, apparently, the fairest way of carrying on exchange transactions. In the case of Kauri gum, the principal article of New

Zealand export to America, it has no doubt to some extent superseded the expensive banking system heretofore described.

It is generally estimated that the exchange and other incidental expenses connected with the importation of goods from New York reaches 5 per cent. over and above the costs under the same heading on London transactions, so that the manufacturers in the United States are obliged to sell their goods at 5 per cent. less than English manufacturers in order to place themselves upon an equality with their English competitors for the New Zealand trade.

The trade between the Pacific coast of the United States and this colony is very limited, and appears chiefly to be confined to canned salmon, fruits, and hops, and a small quantity of bacon. The goods are chiefly brought by the Pacific mail steamers, and from what I have been able to learn the following method for conducting this trade is adopted viz: The shipper draws a draft upon the New Zealand merchant, payable on demand, which the San Francisco banker cashes at a charge of 4 per cent., which is a very high charge considering the shortness of time for which he has to advance the money, and that he is protected by the bill of lading and policy of insurance of the goods.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, N. Z., October 9, 1880.

Return of the quantity, value, and duty paid on cotton goods, and the quantity and value of cotton imported into New Zealand, during the year ending December 31, 1879.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Duty.
Cottons ..... packages..	13	£215	Free.
Cottons ..... do....	3,460	115,329	£11,291 0 8
Cotton ..... pounds..	33,740	990	Free.

WILLIAM FRANCE,
For the Secretary and Inspector of Customs.

CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT, *Wellington, September* 21, 1880.

COTTON MANUFACTURES IN FIJI.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT LASAR, OF LEVUKA.

In reply to your circular on cotton fabrics, I have the honor to submit the following, although very many of the inquiries in said circular are totally inapplicable to this group of islands, because the trade in that class of goods is so trifling.

If the geographic position of Fiji were such as to bring us into like contiguity to the manufacturing States of America as it is to San Francisco, the United States might, by direct shipment, have become a successful rival to England for the Fijian trade, not only in cotton fabrics, but in other merchandise as well, such as hardware, &c.

Importers here inform me that all the American manufactured goods, of whatever description, can be purchased at more reasonable terms in Sydney than to import them direct from San Francisco.

Inquiries from 1 to 12, inclusive, may be answered by the fact that there is at present absolutely no market for cotton yarns in Fiji. Nor are there any manufacturing establishments in these islands, nor is there any probability of such being introduced for many years to come.

Inquiry 13. The goods, of which samples are transmitted in a separate package in order to save postage, are imported from Sydney chiefly, and the samples on which the prices are marked as Sydney prices will include expenses from England to Sydney, together with Sydney wholesale profits, in all from 20 to 25 per cent. over English or American cost. Whenever you find them marked "Levuka price," then, in addition to the 20 to 25 per cent., from 15 to 17½ per cent. additional, which together would be the cost of that class of goods delivered here. Goods of this description are principally of Manchester manufacture, although there are occasional lines in American-manufactured grays, which, as a rule, are indeed honest, well-made goods, quite equal in value to the Manchester-made goods of the same class. In single width, gray cotton cloths range from 27 to 36 inches, average 31 inches; in double width, from 54 to 68 inches. They are invariably sold by the yard. Average length of pieces of both single and double width, from 50 to 70 yards. Consumption very limited.

Inquiry 14. Horrocks, Miller & Co.'s long cloths are imported in very limited quantities for the European trade. Also sheetings, in plain and twilled, from 72 to 100 inches wide. Consumption exceedingly limited. For the native trade a 30 or 32-inch bleached cotton cloth branded "No deception" is the most salable. For the same trade a low-bleached cotton sheeting in plain and twilled, from 60 to 68 inches, is mostly in demand.

Inquiry 15. Low, bright-colored, large-patterned, Manchester-printed calicoes, muslins, and cotton handkerchiefs supply all the requirements in Fiji. The handkerchiefs are chiefly of Glasgow manufacture.

Inquiry 16. The customs duties on all description of drapery is 10 per cent., with other 10 per cent. added to the invoice, which renders it equal to 11 per cent. on invoice, exclusive of outside wrappers, cases, and cash discounts if written off the bottom of invoice. Referring to the 15 to 17½ per cent. additional under Inquiry 13, and observing the customs duties to be 11 per cent., will show that other expenses of importation from Sydney amount to 6½ per cent. The current rate of discount for bills under ninety days is 9 per cent., and over ninety days or over-draft is 10 per cent., and even more. Marine insurance from Sydney is from 1 to 1½ per cent. Fire insurance in Levuka is from 3¼ to 4 per cent.

Inquiry 17. Levuka, Suva, and Taviuni are the only districts where the goods are sold, whence they are distributed all over the group. As to the probable quantity necessary for the annual supply, I cannot procure any reliable data, not even from the customs department, as all soft goods are passed under the general term "drapery."

Inquiry 18. I must give the same answer as to inquiries from 1 to 12.

Inquiry 19. I have no further information than what is contained in the answers preceding.

Inquiry 20. See answers under inquiries 13 and 14.

HENRY S. LASAR.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Levuka, Fiji, July 21, 1880.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

GERMANY.

COTTON TRADE AND COTTON MANUFACTURES IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE, OF FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN.

In the effort to gather the information necessary to answer the inquiries as to the German cotton trade and industry, transmitted from the Department of State, and received at this office on the 14th of May last, a large correspondence has been had, and a painstaking investigation has been made. That the result now offered may be fully understood, it seems proper to say that in this country an investigation of this nature is attended with many peculiar difficulties. The prevailing sensitiveness as to foreign competition, and especially competition from the United States, is itself sufficient to raise a formidable barrier to any inquiry looking to an increase of that competition, in any branch of local industry; and when such inquiry is seen to emanate from a United States consular officer, the persons most competent to furnish the information desired are apt to take alarm, and maintain a timid reticence. Add to this the habitually extreme secretiveness of German business men in regard to everything pertaining to their business, and it will be readily believed that a large proportion of the responses to the inquiries of this office as to the subject in question, though very polite in form, have been practically useless in substance. At the same time many of the persons addressed, though experts in the cotton trade and manufacture, declare with evident sincerity that they are entirely unable to answer the questions proposed, the necessary data either not being attainable to them or not in existence. Others (as for example the Hon. Oberregierungsrath Hermann and the Hon. Director of Statistics Becker, translations of whose letters are hereto appended) declare, with regret, that the knowledge of the subject which they possess is of a confidential nature, or that, for other reasons, it cannot be communicated. Much of the information which follows has therefore been obtained only by indirect processes, and has had to undergo in the compilation the modifications made necessary by apparent partiality or contradiction of statement. Many of the facts collected and given are also, it is true, not in the direct line of the inquiries presented, but as they have a general bearing upon the subject-matter of those inquiries, they are herein offered, in lieu of more exact information, as the best responses at present attainable.

In this behalf, and as preliminary to more specific answers to the questions presented from the department, perhaps some account of the course of the German cotton trade and industry during recent years may not be unacceptable, and may aid in forming an estimate of the prospects and opportunities of that trade for the future. The course

of the cotton (and also linen) spinning and weaving industry in Germany during the year 1878, and the first part of 1879, was succinctly sketched in my last annual report (for 1879), to which, so far as it relates to this subject, I would now respectfully invite attention. In that report some facts are given concerning the relations of the German trade in cotton yarns and fabrics to English competition in the same, which seem to be of interest in this connection. Some additional facts of a like historical nature will now be presented.

The most salient event in the experience of the German cotton interest within recent years, and the event having the most important bearing upon the trade in American manufactured cottons in this country, is the increase of the duties on such staples, which took effect on the 1st of January last. The commercial effect of that increase is not yet fully developed, nor is its permanency in its present form as yet assured; still, around it will cluster, for some time to come, all the interests and all the prospects of the trade in both domestic and foreign cottons.

The extent to which foreign cotton yarns will be affected by the new duties may perhaps be measured by the following comparison of those duties with the rates previously existing:

Description.	Present duty.	Former duty per 100 kilograms.
	Marks.	*Marks.*
1. Raw, one cord:		
a. to No. 17, English	12	
b. over 17 to No. 45	18	
c. over 45 to No. 60	24	12
d. over 60 to No. 79	30	
e. over 79	36	
2. Raw, two cords:		
a	15	
b	21	
c	27	12
d	33	
e	39	
3. One or two cords, bleached or colored:		
a	24	
b	30	
c	36	24
d	42	
e	48	
4. Three and more cords, rough or prepared, bleached, colored	48	
5. Twisted sewing thread, and prepared for sale	70	36
6. Wicks, not woven	24	

This increase of duties was aimed especially at English competition. Some account of the events, and of the deductions therefrom, which led to the increase, may therefore not be out of place here.

GROWTH OF THE GERMAN COTTON-SPINNING INDUSTRY.

The growth of the German cotton-spinning industry has been slow and irregular. In 1846 the number of spindles in the empire was but 750,298, or 25 to each thousand inhabitants, and in 1875, notwithstanding the annexation of Alsace, with 1,434,500 spindles, the total number had arisen to only 2,700,862, or about 66 to each thousand of popula-

tion.* From 1860 to 1870 the quantity of yarn consumed, and of cotton goods exported, remained almost stationary, and after 1875 the amount of production appears to have even declined. Within the period from 1861 to 1875 the number of spindles in Saxony decreased from 707,000 to 471,000, and in Alsace, after the annexation of that province to Germany, the number decreased by 123,000.

During the years 1877 and 1878 the German spinning interest fell, without doubt, into a very languid state. In Alsace alone about 70,000 spindles were idle, while in all the factories of the empire the hours of labor were greatly reduced. At the same time five or six thousand mechanical looms ceased operations, and the stocks on hand, both of yarns and of woven fabrics, excessively accumulated. This accumulation, expressed in percentage of the total annual production of yarn, rose within the years 1875 to 1877 from 7.97 to 13.64. During the same period the stock on hand at the weaving factories rose in Saxony from 12.41 to 38.34 per cent., and in Alsace-Lorraine, from 18.41 to 42.27 per cent. of the total annual production. The immediate cause of this depressed state of the industry was the extraordinary decline in prices due, as was alleged, to foreign competition. In the staple productions of Mülhausen the prices fell during the years 1872 to 1878 from 304 to 192 pfennige per kilogram. At all the centers of production the difference in the prices of the raw cotton and of the yarns spun from them greatly declined, the decline at Dülken, for example, being from 105 pfennige per kilo. in 1875, to 58 pfennige per kilo. in 1878.

Calculations made by experts show that the monthly average sale prices of yarns during the year 1878, and also in 1879, were generally below, sometimes much below, cost. These calculations are based upon the average prices of raw materials, and make allowance for loss of cotton in spinning, for wages and contingent expenses, and for interest. The losses resulting from the state of things thus shown have been very serious. In the district of München-Gladbach, containing about 200,000 water spindles, with an annual production of 85 to 90 pounds per spindle, an aggregate loss was suffered during the four years ended with 1879, estimated at 2,400,000 marks. This estimate does not include bankruptcies, or the depreciation of property. The same authorities estimate the losses of the English spinneries during the same period at 200,000,000 marks, but they claim that while the unprofitableness of

*The German estimate of the total number of spindles in England is 40,000,000.

NOTE.—The following table shows the number of spindles in Europe, and the absorption of cotton thereby, during the year 1878–'79:

	Spindles.	Total consumption.
		Pounds.
Great Britain*	40,000,000	1,118,000,000
France	5,000,000	205,000,000
Germany	4,700,000	258,500,000
Russia and Poland	3,230,000	200,260,000
Switzerland	1,850,000	42,550,000
Spain	1,775,000	81,650,000
Austria	1,674,000	110,484,000
Italy	880,000	59,840,000
Belgium	800,000	41,600,000
Sweden and Norway	310,000	24,800,000
Holland	230,000	13,800,000
	60,449,000	2,156,484,000

*According to a recent Parliamentary return, there were 39,627,920 cotton spindles in the United Kingdom, in addition to 254 factories, entirely closed, and making no return. In 1872–'73, with only 37,515,772 spindles, the deliveries in Great Britain reached 1,280,640,000 pounds, or 34 pounds per spindle, as against 28 pounds in 1878–'79.

the German industry nearly destroyed it, the English competition with that industry, in spite of its far greater losses, maintained itself unchecked. In fact the "commercial crisis" in England was also a crisis for the German spinner, inasmuch as it lowered the standard prices of his wares, and at the same time precipitated a glut of cheap goods upon his market.

It is probable that many causes conspired to produce the extreme depression of prices of German yarns, but in the popular belief it was due mainly to the excessive import of the less costly English product. There can be no doubt, indeed, that England holds an immense advantage in controlling the cotton market of Europe—an advantage which perhaps only Americans, as the leading producers of raw cotton, are able to contend with. The prices of cotton yarn, as also of the materials used in its production, are virtually dictated to Germany by Manchester, and the German spinneries have been practically at the mercy of those of England. It is not conceded that the English product is always better than the German, it is even claimed that the latter is generally superior in quality, but it is represented that in greater cheapness of raw material,* in cheaper coal, machinery, repairs, and freights, greater capital, better colonial markets, more thorough division of labor, and more experienced workmen, the English spinner enjoys great advantages over his continental rivals. To all this must be added the fact, as has been claimed, that wherever foreign yarns and domestic yarns are offered for sale in the same German market, the latter must be subordinated to the low prices of the former.

In this connection it may be mentioned that in Alsace the competition of English yarns has been chiefly felt from Nos. 50 and 60 upwards, in South Germany from No. 44 upwards, and in North and West Germany from No. 20 upwards. In the Gladbach district even No. 14 water twist has been, in some instances, imported.

Another circumstance which has operated disastrously to the German cotton-spinning interest, has been a gradual transition of production from the finer varieties of yarn to the coarser. The competition of the English in the finer qualities obliged the Alsacian spinners to resort to the coarser, in the production of which the old German spinners had been mainly occupied, and who therefore found themselves subjected, after the annexation of Alsace, to a powerful home rivalry. Experts represent that whereas, before the year 1870, about 350,000 spindles were engaged in the production of numbers above 50, not over 80,000 spindles were so engaged in 1877, and that the middle number of Alsace had declined in the latter year from 45–50 to 30–32. It had been expected that with the removal of the customs line, separating Alsace from Germany, the importation of fine yarns from England would cease, and that the required supply would be obtained from the annexed province, and it was therefore with some surprise that England was seen to continue to import her fine yarns, and force her Alsacian competitors to produce the coarser.

The same transition to the coarser yarns was observed in the South German spinneries, where the percentage of the total yarn production increased, in the lower numbers up to 20 of mule and medium twist, from 6.68 to 29.26, whereas the like increase in Alsace was from 1.83 to 24.20. As a result of this, the home competition in the coarser yarns

* The advantage enjoyed by the English spinner over the German in obtaining raw cotton has been carefully estimated at 11.52 marks per hundred kilograms, making an allowance of 12 per cent. for the waste of cotton sufiered in spinning.

became very sharp, and the field for the English finer varieties was in corresponding measure enlarged.

The foregoing facts constitute the grounds upon which increased duties on cotton yarns, graded according to numbers, were proposed and finally enacted. A further supplemental reason given was, that the American Union had doubled the number of its spindles since 1860, and was not only driving English competition from its shores, but must soon be expected to join in the competition, upon his own ground, with the German spinner.

The increase of duties on yarns was vigorously opposed by the weavers, against whose interests it obviously militated. During the six years previous to its enactment, an average of 254,000 centners of woven goods had been exported from Germany, and it was greatly feared that this interest would be seriously crippled by additional taxes upon yarn. However, the importations of cotton goods, which amounted in 1863 to 7,981 centners, had increased in 1877 to only 46,992 centners. The pressure for additional duties on cotton fabrics was therefore due not so much to foreign competition as to the domestic competition from Alsace, whose goods, from the time of the annexation of that province, stocked the market and seriously impaired the interests of the old German manufacturers. This fact will explain, perhaps, why the Alsacian weavers, contrary to those of the German states, favored an increase of duties on cotton fabrics as well as on cotton yarns, both of which are produced in Alsace. The Alsacians, having joint interests in spinning and weaving, could scarcely fail to profit by protective levies for both industries, while among German manufacturers the interests of those industries were not quite so mutual and uniform.

Owing to the introduction of the sewing-machine, both the manufacture and the importation of sewing cords have been extensively developed of late years. In 1859 the import of such cords amounted to 4,710 centners, and in 1877 it had increased to 20,214 centners. This import is believed to have been double, in value, the amount of the home product. The English cords, although costing about 10 per cent. more than the German, were preferred to the latter, by reason, as is claimed, of a popular prejudice in favor of certain English trade-marks which had established a kind of prestige. At present, however, the American sewing cords are extensively sold in Germany, and are not excelled in quality.

The foregoing observations, and also the portions of the last annual report cited therein, refer to the conditions of the German spinning and weaving industries mainly prior to the year 1879, and also prior to the final enactment of the tariff. The course of those industries since that time has been somewhat different, and has also varied somewhat in the northern and southern sections of the empire. In the northern section, the year 1879 is declared to have been one of the most unfavorable for the water spinneries that has yet been realized. The extremely low ebb to which prices had sunk at the end of 1878 remained stationary during the first quarter of 1879, although cotton had advanced about 9 pfennigs per pound. At the beginning of June prices of cotton stood at 20 to 23 pfennigs per pound higher than in the preceding December, while yarns had risen only 12 pfennigs. At this time, and throughout the year, the difference between the cost of cotton and the prices of yarn was at no time sufficient, as is claimed, to cover the cost of manufacture. This was due to the great import of English yarns precipitated upon the market in anticipation of the tariff, and offered at prices ruinous to the German spinner. Meanwhile Manchester had, for the first time in a long while, received more orders from India and China than could be

filled, causing an advance in English market prices of yarns and textiles, while the German market prices, owing to the great stock on hand, continued depressed. German stocks, therefore, went on accumulating, while English stocks were speedily and profitably marketed. These facts illustrate what has already been said as to the subserviency and disadvantages of the German cotton spinner as compared with the English.

After the month of June, 1879, the purchases of both raw and manufactured cottons declined in anticipation of the new cotton harvest, which was expected to be abundant. Nevertheless prices maintained an upward tendency, the stocks of English yarns were gradually worked up, and during the months of January and February of the current year a change for the better gradually supervened, so that after the month of February last the German prices of yarns ceased to be unprofitable, and were, at the end of February, about 25 to 30 per cent. higher than they had been a year previous.

The extent of the revival in the English trade which preceded this improvement in the German may be estimated by the fact that the English exports of yarns and other cottons during the first five months of 1880 amounted, in value, to £29,569,000 against £25,049,000 in the same period of 1879, and against £27,492,000 in the first five months of 1878. The significance of these figures appears in stronger light when they are contrasted with the fact that England shipped about 100,000 cwts. less of cotton goods to India in 1878–'79 than she did in 1877–'78, and that the English consumption of raw cotton decreased from 11,160,000 cwts. in 1873–'74 to 9,980,000 cwts. in 1877–'78. It is no wonder that in the unexampled depression of the latter year which these figures exhibit, the German market was overstocked with cheap English yarns.

As to the cop spinneries of North Germany, for beaver and fustian yarns, it is declared that they were able (in 1879) to keep their spindles running only by selling their goods without profit, and that even after East Indian cotton had advanced about 30 to 40 per cent. above the lowest quotations of the year, they were unable to advance the prices of their yarns sufficiently to make their production remunerative. A reduction of demand for beaver and calmuck, continued from the previous year, compelled the manufacture of fustians and cotton-flannels instead, which articles served the cop spinneries very imperfectly as substitutes in the demand for their yarns. The same is true of the warp spinneries, whose yarns are used for the same purposes as those of the cop spinneries.

In the spinning and weaving industries of South Germany, Alsace is the most powerful factor, and that province is spoken of by old German artisans very much as if it were still a foreign competitor. The manner and the extent to which its annexation has operated, and still operates, as a commercial disturbance in the empire, especially with respect to the spinning and weaving interests, may be guessed from the following sentences translated from the recent report of a South German Chamber of Commerce:

> The joining of Alsace to the German Empire has brought us into a new and uncertain position with respect to all the better sorts of fabrics. For it is a fact that the largest Alsacian establishments do not regulate their prices according to the general state of the market, but according to a concerted plan of competition, and that, for example, while all German factories for smooth goods have raised their prices by 6 to 7 pfennigs per meter, or about 20 per cent., the Alsacians have retained their old prices for similar goods, or, at the utmost, have increased their prices only 1 or 2 centimes for the very commonest varieties. Besides, as is known, operations are carried on in Alsace with the help of enormous amounts of private capital, and an advantage has been gained against competition by timely purchases on a large scale.

Notwithstanding all this, such a total difference in the way of dealing with the situation, in the same branch of industry, is very noticeable, and the ultimate reason for it might be sought, not in speculation, but in calculation. Manufacturers on the left bank of the Rhine have conquered for themselves a very extensive field of operations and thus secured higher profits. This came about largely at the expense of the old German industries, and especially of the intermediate trade, which, by the manner in which Alsace endeavors to effect sales among us, is almost paralyzed. It no longer occurs that manufactories only produce for wholesale dealers and leave these to effect sales in the provinces to the retail trade. For some years past they have commenced more and more to avoid the legitimate channels hitherto followed by the course of trade, and, instead, to seek direct connections of their factories with the retail dealers, workmen, and even private persons.

In this connection it might be further mentioned that the Alsacians claim to have an art of coloring cotton fabrics that is not possessed in any other part of Germany, in England, or in any other country. They pride themselves particularly on the finish of their calicoes, to which they profess to be able to impart an appearance scarcely discernable from that of silk. Heretofore large amounts of Austrian goods have been sent to Mülhausen to be colored, for which purpose special treaty stipulations have existed, authorizing the import and export of such fabrics duty free.* In fact, the Alsacians make bold to say that they have no competition in the world in their peculiar specialties. For their best fabrics only American cotton is fit, no other affording the same texture and finish. The cotton is bought and imported directly from the United States, and there are single establishments that consume thirty million francs worth per year. The agents of the larger factories travel in every part of Europe, supplied with an endless variety of samples, and authorized to contract directly with retail dealers. This is especially true of the woven fabrics, of which the sale has greatly increased during the past twelve months, within which time also the exports to the United States have been greater than during any previous year of the past ten.

For the reasons which have been explained, the other spinneries and weaveries of South Germany have not been quite so prosperous as those of Mülhausen. The beginning of 1879 found prices depressed, as in North Germany, to their lowest level, 34″ 19–18 calico being obtainable for 19 pfennigs per meter, with 2 per cent. discount, a quotation unprecedented in the history of mechanical weaving and spinning in Germany. At the same time the demand was as languid as the price. The cheaper the goods became, the more did the inclination to buy subside. Not only did "Alsacian competition" operate to glut the market, but Austria, to which cotton goods had been largely exported, placed the same import duty on German yarns and textiles that were imposed on English, thereby very greatly impairing the power of German goods to compete with others. Consequently, in February and the first half of March, prices were duller even than in January. Not until the middle of April did the situation improve, the signal for the change being given from Mülhausen. Suddenly the enormous stocks of goods in store were bought up by speculators, at the prevailing low prices, and considerable advance contracts were made. In May an unmistakable advance of prices set in, which continued during June and July, and was maintained until September, when the foregone failure of the wine crop, causing disaster in districts which are large purchasers of goods, again depressed prices, but not to the same level as before. In December a new advance occurred, which culminated in April of the present year.

*Per contra, it has come to my knowledge, in the course of this investigation, that some Alsacian fabrics are exported to England partly finished, and, after being colored there, are returned.

As to particular branches of textile industry it may be observed that the rise in the prices of yarns in anticipation of the new duties to take effect on the 1st of January last, greatly impeded the production of cotton bed-covers, which articles are made solely for exportation, and from double yarns which are not produced in sufficient quantities in Germany, and must therefore be imported from England.

In pantaloon stuffs, Manchester and moleskin, sales increased 5 per cent. "in spite of the competition of Alsace." The manufacture of pantaloon stuffs was extended for the reason that the so-called "blue print" partially occupied the place of the fustians.

Owing to the advanced prices of yarns, the manufacture of tickings and mattress stuffs generally decline. Formerly there was a lively export of these articles to England, but now it has ceased. Some of the ticking establishments have quit that line of business, and devoted their attention to pantaloon stuffs and damask goods.

Such results seem to go very far towards justifying the apprehensions of the weavers as to the effect upon their industry of the increased duties on yarns.

ANSWERS TO DEPARTMENT CIRCULAR.

The foregoing observations trace the history of the cotton industries and trade during recent years, and down to the present date, within the territories embraced by this consulate-general. It will now be my task to answer, as explicitly and fully as possible, the various inquiries presented from the Department.

1. It is not possible to state with exactness the amount of English cotton yarns imported by Germany, or any particular district thereof, during the year 1878. Of the nominal imports a considerable amount has been brought to the country *in transitu*, and the statistics heretofore compiled have made no distinction between such imports and those for actual consumption. The same is true as to the various provinces of the empire. The new tariff act, as stated in my last annual report, has made provision for the collection of exact information concerning the amounts, kinds, and values of the actual imports, as well as of those *in transitu*, but sufficient time has not yet elapsed for a complete yearly return of such statistics.

I am reliably informed that the total importation of yarns from England in 1877 amounted to 36,676,300 pounds, and that the total quantity consumed in Germany was 212,387,800 pounds. The importation from England and Switzerland was 17.3 per cent. of the total consumption. For 1878 and 1879 the proportion of importations to production is about the same,* but in consequence of the new duties the importations of the present year have considerably declined.

The same authority from which these figures have been obtained states that in 1855 the consumption of yarn in Germany amounted to 999,541 centners, and that in 1877 it had increased to 2,123,878 centners. Also that the home production of Germany in 1855 was 514,326 centners, and in 1876 had increased to 2,249,684 centners.

As to the Gladbach district, I am informed by thoroughly competent authority that while English yarns are extensively imported there, the quantity and value cannot be even approximately stated, there being no importation statistics for the several districts.

2. Even an approximate amount can hardly be given. In the Gladbach district there were perhaps 500 to 800 bales of 1,200 pounds im-

* According to the official reports of the imperial bureau of statistics, at Berlin, the total import of English cotton yarns in 1878 was 39,023,400 pounds, and in 1879 was 31,550,100 pounds.

ported in 1878. The yarns imported were for the most part reeled into skeins and imported in bundles.

3. The yarns imported are principally qualities which are not manufactured in Germany, as for instance the finer numbers, which provincial factories cannot profitably produce. Among such specialties may be mentioned, first, 60–200 double, spun from English cotton, and 50–100 single yarn, spun from very fine American, but principally from Egyptian cotton. 2. Three and four cords for sewing-machines. 3. Fine doubles for glove manufacture in Saxony, and also for warps, employed in the half-silk industry of Crefeld. 4. No. 90 double or 45 single yarns as warps for zanella and similar stuffs for the weaving factories of Elberfeld. During the last few years inferior qualities have also been imported from England, a fact, attributed, in part, to the famines which have prevailed in Asia, and the great depreciation of silver, lowering the quotations for silver rupees from 25 to 30 per cent. In "normal periods" the importation of inferior qualities is believed to be impracticable.

Of water-twist Nos. 20–24 were imported, as was also No. 40 thread and warps, partly colored. In January, 1878, the price of No. 20 water was 90 pfennige (21½ cents) per English pound. In December of the same year the price had declined to 79 pfennige (19 cents). The prices for warps and threads are the same as those reported for the English market.

The foregoing statements (under No. 3), apply more especially to the Elberfeld and Gladbach districts, whose importations of yarn from England are larger than those of any other part of Germany, owing to the fact that they enjoy cheap freights through the ports of Holland.

For other parts of Prussia, and for Saxony and South Germany, exclusive of Alsace, my information is that the importations consist almost exclusively of Nos. 20, 24, and 30 fine warp yarn; 30–30 and 40–40 thread; and very fine English thread for silk and satin factories. In coarse yarns, such as No. 4–20 mule, it is claimed that the English cannot compete with the German manufactures.

As to Alsace, one of the most extensive manufacturers of Mülhausen writes me that the amount of English threads and tissues now purchased there is relatively small compared with the importations to (other parts of) "Germany." I am also assured, from the same source, that no exact information as to the amount of importation can be obtained. As to my inquiries concerning qualities, trade-marks, and prices, my informant is silent.

The following are the prices of the yarns used by a prominent German manufacturer of satins:

	Per pound net
Warp, 120–2, marque A. R. M	$0 95
Warp, 200–2, marque S. A. S	2 62
Warp, 200–2, marque S. B. X	2 38
Warp, 200–2, marque Q. B	1 90
Weft, 60 medio	38
Weft, 80 medio	52

In this market the following prices of water-twist weaving yarns for 1879 are reported by the chamber of commerce:

	January.	April.	July.	October.	December.
S. B. No. 6–12	$0 16	$0 17	$0 18	$0 18	$0 18
G. F. No. 6–12	16	17	19	18	19
R. B. No. 20	18	20	22	21	22
Kn. No. 20	20	21	22	22	23

The following comparative statement of the average wholesale prices of cotton yarns per kilogram (2.2 pounds avoirdupois), during the month of May, in years 1879 and 1880, may also be of interest in this connection:

	May.	
	1879.	1880.
1. Augsburg; at manufactory, 36 warp, 42 weft	$0 50	$0 54
Augsburg; at manufactory, 20 warp, 20 weft	42	45
2. Crefeld; No. 40 to 120, twice gasirt	1 24	1 33
Crefeld; No. 130 to 200, twice gasirt	2 37	2 45
3. Mülhausen; warp No. 16	43	45
Mülhausen; warp No. 28	51	52
Mülhausen; warp No. 40	71	74
Mülhausen; weft No. 16	43	45
Mülhausen; weft No. 37	53	54
Mülhausen; weft No. 50	74	74
4. Stuttgart; 36 warp, 32 weft	48	54
Stuttgart; 20 warp, 20 weft	38	46

At present, the better qualities of No. 20 English water are worth about 22½ cents, and the inferior qualities 21½ cents.

The German market, both for raw and manufactured cotton, being so strongly influenced from England, the following additional compilations of prices are annexed to this report. Comparative statement of the Manchester cotton trade for the years 1875 to 1880, inclusive; statement of the average prices and cost of production of cotton yarns from 1875 to 1877, inclusive; Lancashire prices of raw cotton and mule twist, with difference to manufacturer, for various periods from 1877 to 1880, inclusive.

4. I have not been able to ascertain that pin cops are imported in the northern districts of yarn consumption. Experts there inform me that they have no knowledge of such importations. In other districts, pin cops from No. 20 upwards are imported, but the quantity is not known.

5. All the information obtained as to numbers and prices has been given in reply to question 3.

6. English yarns rarely form the exclusive material from which fabrics are manufactured in Germany; on the contrary, they are generally mixed with silk, wool, or linen, and also with German yarns. No. 20–24 water twist are manufactured into cotton and half woolen pantaloon and garment stuffs, German mule yarns being used in the woof; dressed undyed thread-warps into pantaloon stuffs, with German mule yarns for woof; and dyed and finer thread warps into flannels (Italian cloth), woven combed yarns being used for the woof.

7. The prices of such cloths vary from 10 cents to 48 cents per meter. At Stuttgart the average wholesale price in May last of calico 92 centimeters wide, 19–17 threads, of 36–42 yarn, was 5 cents per meter. There are no manufactories of any of these fabrics, or of the yarns composing them in this vicinity.

8. In reply to this inquiry a very intelligent and well informed business man writes me as follows:

To enumerate the different kinds of yarns and textile fabrics which are chiefly salable in Germany is impossible, for the reason that manufacturers will not allow a clear scrutiny, and regard the amounts required to complete stocks, and the respective trade-marks as business secrets. At the same time accurate statistical information on these subjects does not exist. In fact there are so many different kinds of spinning and weaving factories in this country that it would be necessary to furnish a separate schedule for each establishment.

As to English yarns another experienced gentleman writes: "Good marques are Brook & Swindels, Moore & Waddington, Taylor, Hindley, Rooper."

A third response to the same inquiry given by an expert at one of the chief centers of English yarn consumption, is simply this: "Of various qualities and under the various trade-marks of the English spinners."

9. The response for the northern districts to this inquiry is: "American yarns are not, so far as we know, imported." Another authority for the same region declares that "American yarns have been offered in the market, but at prices which would not allow one to think of purchasing them." In another communication the same gentleman says:

> Before the increase took place in the customs duties, at the commencement of the present year, American yarns were often bought at comparatively remunerative prices in this country, especially in West Germany, but many large manufacturers declare that the present increased duties make profitable competition very doubtful. The manufacturers also state that American yarns are, according to German ideas, made in a faulty manner, but I have not, as yet, been able to learn in what respect. The generally excellent and substantial quality of the cotton used in the manufacture of American yarns is undisputed. I have been informed that large stocks of these yarns are said to be stored in Hamburg, which yarns formerly found a ready market in Germany, but now, by reason of the exorbitant duty, can only realize sales at a considerable loss. In future, it is said, the United States can only have a chance in the sale of their partly and wholly manufactured cotton goods, at so-called flush sales, at very low prices, and that the object principally to be held in view is to endeavor to force direct trade in the duty-free raw cotton.

The authority here quoted gives, as will be observed, the opinions of German manufacturers rather than his own. It is his individual judgment that American textiles still have fair chances of success.

As to South Germany, an intelligent Alsacian, thoroughly acquainted with the subject, informs me that American yarns are not extensively sold. Speaking from his *ex parte* standpoint (he is interested in one of the largest print works of Mülhausen), he declares that American yarns are not strong enough. "They are cheap, but not durable." The most experienced authorities as to cottons in this city declare that, so far as they are aware, no importations of American yarns are now taking place.

10. There are no English commission merchants here, or in this neighborhood, who sell such yarns. The importation is at present in the hands of the agents of English houses, whose places of business on the continent are outside of this consular district, and also, for the most part, outside the territory of this consulate-general. I am informed that a reliable firm at Barmen for the import of English yarns is that of Abr. Siebel Sohn.

11. There are no American commission merchants here, or in this vicinity, who are engaged in the sale of yarns, nor is this city at present an emporium for such traffic, there being no manufactories of cotton textiles in its neighborhood. There are, however, gentlemen here who are engaged in an extensive trade in woven and hand-made cotton goods, and among these I would cordially recommend Mr. Erwin Roelker, agent of the firm of Louis Windmüller & Roelker, of New York, as a suitable person to correspond with as to yarns and textiles. Mr. Roelker speaks the English, as well as the German language, and has all the qualifications for a successful agent. I would say the same for Mr. A. F. H. Kinne, of Essen a. d. Ruhr, who believes enthusiastically in the success of American trade on the continent, and who takes great special interest in the subject of American yarns and textiles. He has a wide business acquaintance and correspondence in the yarn-consuming districts.

Doubtless the consular officers whose jurisdictions comprise the spinning and weaving territories, can furnish the names of an abundance of good agents of whom they have personal knowledge.

12. The yarns are mostly sold by the Manchester commission houses directly to the manufacturers. They are not sent from England on consignment, but by direct sales.

13. The breadths of the goods mentioned in this question are 60–120 centimeters. The goods are sold per meter.

14. Before the increased duties came into effect on the 1st of January last, English shirtings, from 32 to 36 inches wide, were imported in large quantities, at prices ranging from 3 to 6 pence per yard. The effect of the additional duties, of the large stocks imported in anticipation of those duties, and of the advance of prices in England, has been to suspend the importation of these fabrics for the present.

American shirtings, as already reported on former occasions, have been quite extensively sold in this city and vicinity, and their quality has given great satisfaction, although the Alsacian dealers enviously declare them lacking in perfection of finish. The only real objection to them of much force has been their price, and that, of course, has been so enhanced by the new duties as to impair somewhat their chances of successful competition.

15. An assortment of samples accompanies this report, and includes all that I have as yet been able to obtain after repeated search and inquiry. They will be found duly labeled and described. Additional samples are expected, but may not be received in time to accompany those on hand at this writing.

16. It is very difficult to answer this question without actual experiment. Margin must always be allowed for unforeseen costs and charges. The expenses of inland freights, insurance, port charges, labor, storage, and commissions depend on varying circumstances and contingencies. As in the United States, through freights are generally cheaper, proportionately, than local, and the German manufacturers in the smaller cities often complain bitterly that in the transportation both of made goods and raw materials their railways discriminate against them, and in favor of the importer. As to shipments from the United States, calculations should be made, for Northwest and Southwest Germany, free to the ports of Rotterdam, Amsterdam, and Antwerp; and for Northeast and Middle Germany, free to Bremen or Hamburg.

17. The centers of sale are generally the same as the centers of production. For Southern and Southwestern Germany, these are chiefly, Mülhausen in Alsace, Esslingen, Cannstatt, Sindelfingen, Ludwigsburg, and Stuttgart in Würtemburg, Bad-Wiesenthal in Baden, and Augsburg in Bavaria. For Northwest Germany the principal places are Elberfeld, Barmen, Paderborn, Münster, Bielefeld, Aix-la-Chapelle, and München-Gladbach. English yarns are largely imported into Silesia and Saxony, and at Berlin. English textiles are chiefly imported by Berlin and Leipsic wholesale houses, and underwear manufacturers

Relative to the points of question 17 which concern the numbers and amounts of yarns consumed in these markets, all the information has been given in the replies to previous inquiries which it has been possible to obtain.

18. I have not, as yet, been able to ascertain that the yarns mentioned in this question are used for any of the purposes named. In this connection I would beg to refer to that part of my last annual report relating to flax spinning and the manufacture of linen.

19. For the full treatment, here requested, of the cognate subjects not

mentioned in the series of questions presented, I would refer to the first part of this report.

20. Cotton yarns are not extensively imported here, if at all, either directly or indirectly, as they are only consumed in any considerable quantity in the form of manufactured goods sold by the merchants in the ordinary course of business.

21. As to samples, reference is made to the descriptive list given below.

22. No such discoveries as are suggested in this inquiry have been made in the course of this investigation. The various articles of American production which are being sold here, and for which the demand is good, and the prospect favorable, have already been fully described in previous commercial reports to the Department of State. I am assured, however, that the importation from the United States of raw, carded, combed, and dyed cotton, which articles are yet duty free, can be greatly increased if English mediation, which absorbs so many advantages and profits, can be dispensed with.

As one of the deductions to be made from this investigation, with especial reference to the prospects for establishing a German trade in American yarns and fabrics, I have only to repeat the conviction expressed in previous reports with reference to other articles of traffic, that the only sure way to arrive at a definite conclusion as to what can be done in this market is to try it. One such practical test, if fairly and thoroughly applied, is worth more than many written reports. To prove definitely whether the articles in question can be sold at a profit in this country, actual, judicious, and persistent experiment must be made. If the articles are found to be as good as, and not more expensive than, their rivals, and as well adapted to the notions of the people, they will assuredly be bought. If they are found to be better than their rivals, but more expensive, though equally acceptable in other respects, they may still make their way to favor. The main points are that their quality shall be of the highest order, and their cost not out of proportion to that of other similar goods. Of these points the market must have a fair opportunity to form its own judgment before outsiders can fairly conjecture what that judgment will be. Sample of the goods must be sent, and presented for examination as to quality, price, and suitableness. Much depends, often, on the mere style of an article, or its mode of finish, and perhaps this is particularly true of many kinds of fabrics. By an immaterial change, which a trial of the market would readily suggest, but which could not be foreseen, a commodity may be rendered very salable, when without such change it might be rejected. This is true generally of foreign-made wares in Germany. The notions of the people must be catered to, especially those pertaining to articles of dress, which are less permanent, perhaps, than some other notions. A fabric that would sell this season may not sell next. In the weaveries and printworks of Alsace, ingenious artisans are employed at heavy expense, whose sole business it is to invent new designs, or render old ones more acceptable to the market. To promote the spirit of invention, and secure the benefit of latest improvements, a society has been formed for the discussion of all questions pertaining to the spinning, weaving, and coloring industries, and all the machines, processes and appliances which they employ. A publication is issued monthly by this society, containing the latest results of industrial discovery and research.

In consequence of these vigorous efforts at progress in domestic production, if for no other reason, the importers of cotton stuffs for Germany must be prepared to adapt themselves to a varying market. Americans possess a vast advantage in the original production of raw

material. American cotton is the nourishment by which the chief spinning and textile industries of the continent subsist. England controls the cost of that cotton as against the spinners of the continent, but she ought not to be able to control it against those of the United States, at whose doors the material is produced. If the Alsacian spinners, importing their cotton from the United States, can compete with the English, much more would it seem that our own spinners, enjoying the first choice of unequaled raw material, not subject to importation charges, should be able to compete with them. That they can, and ultimately will do so, wherever anything like fair commercial opportunities are afforded them, there can scarcely be a doubt, and nothing but a severely protective policy against them, like that now in vogue, can prevent their final and perhaps early success in this market. The fate of that policy vitally involves the future of our trade. Though not, in respect to the industries now considered, especially aimed against us, it applies against us as well as against those for whom it is particularly intended. The first question is, therefore, whether either we or they shall be admitted to the German market, and the second question, not so much whether our producers are able to compete with the German, as whether they can withstand the English. This latter problem once resolved in our favor, it only remains to be considered whether the existing high duties on yarns and fabrics shall be continued, or whether they shall be modified or increased. On that subject, of course, only conjectural conclusions can yet be given, though reasons are not wanting for the belief that the duties will be reduced. Germany has already taxed some of her weaving industries out of existence by her excessive levies on imported yarn, and it does not now seem probable that she will go further in that direction. She seems more likely, in fact, to reverse her course, so far as cotton yarns are concerned. Her spinneries cannot live without her weaveries, especially if her spun goods are to be excluded, as seems probable, from the Austrian market. Protection which destroys the one industry will be sure to greatly injure if it does not destroy the other. The existing barriers to the admission of American yarns to this market seem therefore more likely to be weakened than strengthened. At the same time the increased cost of woven goods caused by the greater duties on yarns ought to help materially to prepare the way for American fabrics. But that such fabrics or yarns shall make headway in Germany, it is of the first importance that with respect to them the high reputation as to quality now enjoyed by American goods should be fully maintained. Of late the manner in which English cottons are loaded with foreign substances has attracted general attention, and has also been to some extent imitated in this country. Attention was drawn to the subject in recent discussions of the Society for the Furtherance of Professional Industry in Berlin, and in the course of that discussion mention was made of an instance in which 46,000 pieces of English calico had been ruined by mold arising from the adulterating substance. It was further stated that the amount of the adulteration was often as much as 50 to 56 per cent., so that barely half of the fabric was really cotton fiber. At first the material used was mainly starch or China pollard, but this was found to generate in the goods a sort of fungus, of which as many as twenty-seven different varieties were discovered. To avoid these fungus formations, the English resorted to the German chloride of magnesium from Stassfurt, of which it is said, for several years past, thousands of tons have gone annually to England to be put into the cottons. The chloride is itself adulterated by being liberally mixed with farina, and to such extravagance has the loading process been carried by some manufac-

tories, that it has been said of them that they mix their starch with an adulteration of calico.

In Saxony the use of bitter salts as loading material has been commenced, and the process has been employed not only for cotton goods, but also for woolens and for cloth, cordage, and leather belting. In the case of silks, the introduction of foreign substance amounts sometimes to as much as 400 per cent.

It is fervently to be hoped that American manufacturers will cheerfully accord to their European competitors an entire monopoly of such processes. The ultimate success and profitableness of our trade upon this continent depends upon nothing so much as upon the maintenance, and even improvement, of the high reputation of our goods. Any attempt to fight shoddy with shoddy will be sure to end disastrously in every respect. The English, it is true, have gained an ephemeral success, particularly in oriental countries, by such processes as have been described, and the claim is even made that except by means of such processes their cotton manufacturing interest would never have acquired its present position and dimensions. That such a claim should be made for that interest is sufficient indication of its vulnerable points, and also of the means by which it should be combatted. So far as Germany is concerned, it will be a fortunate epoch for our cotton manufacturers when they shall be able to join issue against cheap shoddy and inferior wares, from whatever source, with such as they are capable of producing. Such an issue they should by no means fear, but rather be eager to invite.

ALFRED E. LEE,
UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL, *Consul-General.*
Frankfort-on-the-Main, July 15, 1880.

[Inclosures in foregoing Report.]

1. Oberregierungsrath Hermann to Consul-General Lee.
2. Director of Statistics Becker to Consul-General Lee.
3. Comparative statement of the Manchester cotton trade for the years 1875 to 1880, inclusive.
4. Statement of the average prices and cost of production of cotton yarns from 1875 to 1877, inclusive.
5. Lancashire prices of raw cotton and of mule twist, with difference to manufacturer, for various periods from 1877 to 1880, inclusive.

[Inclosure No 1, with Consul-General Lee's Report on Cottons.]

Oberregierungsrath Hermann to Consul-General Lee. Translation

MUNICH, *June* 28, 1880.

SIR: The special information which I possess, as referred to in your very esteemed favor of the 21st instant, concerning the state of the German cotton industry, and the influence of British competition, has been acquired by me in my official capacity in which I took part in the negotiation of the commercial treaty with Austria-Hungary, in the investigations (enquête) of 1878 and the customs tariff reform. I am therefore by reason of the obligation of official discretion imposed upon me, not in a position to furnish you with the information requested by you, and this to my sincere regret, for not only do I appreciate the confidence with which you have honored me, but I have the conviction that every development of the commercial relations existing between American and German industry is for the mutual interests of these countries.

I am, etc.,

J. HERMANN.

[Inclosure No. 2, with Consul-General Lee's Report on Cottons.]

Director of Statistics Becker to Consul-General Lee. Translation.

BERLIN, *July* 6, 1880.

SIR: In reply to your esteemed favor of the 9th instant, I have the honor to inform you that the report of the commission of investigation relative to the German cotton

and linen industries has been printed as No. 39 of the printed documents of the Federal Council of the German Empire for the year 1879.

As inclosures with said report have been also printed one volume each of statistical information, and of the protocols taken in the hearing of experts. These printed documents, which are preserved in the Imperial Department of the Interior, are, however, not designed for public inspection, and not to be obtained from book dealers. Only one copy has been supplied for the use of the Statistical Office, and I therefore regret that I am not able to comply with your wish to be furnished with one.

I am, etc.,

BECKER.

[Inclosure No. 3, with Consul-General Lee's Report on Cottons.]

Comparative statement of the cotton trade.

Raw cotton.	Price June 24, 1880.	Corresponding week in—				
		1879.	1878.	1877.	1876.	1875.
Upland, middling	$0 14 7/16	$0 14 7/16	$0 12 3/4	$0 14 1/16	$0 13 5/8	$0 16 1/4
Upland, middling, fair	15 3/4	15 1/4	14 3/16	14 3/16	15 1/8	17 5/16
Pernambuco, fair	15	15 11/16	14 7/16	14 1/16	14 13/16	16 5/8
Pernambuco, good, fair	15 1/16	16 3/16	14 1/16	14 1/8	15 5/16	19 1/4
No. 40 mule-twist, fair, second quality	24 1/4	21 3/16	22	22 1/8	24 1/4	25 1/16
No. 30 water-twist, fair, second quality	23 1/16	21 3/16	21 3/16	23 1/16	23 1/8	25 1/16
26-inch, 66 reed, printer, 29 yards, 4 pounds 2 ounces	1 03 3/16	96 3/16	1 10 3/16	1 21 1/8	1 03 3/16	1 24 7/16
27-inch, 72 reed, printer, 29 yards, 5 pounds 2 ounces	1 27 15/16	1 06 1/16	1 21 1/8	1 33 1/8	1 21 1/8	1 55 11/16
39-inch, 60 reed, gold end shirtings, 37½ yards, 8 pounds 4 ounces	1 93 1/8	1 86 1/16	1 94 1/8	2 07 1/16	1 93 1/8	2 31 1/8
40-inch, 66 reed, gold end shirtings, 37½ yards, 8 pounds 12 ounces	2 14 1/8	2 14 1/8	2 18 7/16	2 31 1/8	2 14 1/8	2 56 1/8
40-inch, 72 reed, gold end shirtings, 37½ yards, 9 pounds 5 ounces	2 31 1/8	2 35 7/16	2 43 1/4	2 56 1/2	2 49 11/16	2 87 1/8
39-inch, 44 reed, red end-long cloth, 36 yards, 9 pounds	1 45 1/16	1 45 1/16	1 70 1/16	1 83 11/16	1 70 1/16	2 04 1/4

(English pound sterling valued at $4.8665.)

[Inclosure No. 4, with Consul General Lee's Report on Cottons.]

Statement of the average prices and cost of production of cotton yarns in Germany from 1875 to 1877, inclusive.

[Prices and cost of production stated in United States gold currency.]

English number.	Average sale prices from 1875 to 1877, inclusive.	Average cost of production for same period.	English number.	Average sale prices from 1875 to 1877, inclusive.	Average cost of production for same period.
10	$0 37	$0 09	44	$0 65	$0 28
12	38	09	48	71	34
14	39	10	50	76	35
16	40	11	54	84	39
20	43	13	60	99	47
24	45	14	66	1 15	54
28	48	16	70	1 28	59
30	49	17	74	1 43	65
32	50	18	80	1 67	75
36	55	20	86	1 90	86
40	59	24	90	2 14	96

[Inclosure No. 5, with Consul-General Lee's report on cottons.]

Lancashire prices of raw cotton, and of mule twist, with difference to manufacturer, for various periods from 1877 to 1880, inclusive.

[Values stated in United States gold currency.]

Date.	Raw cotton, middling upland, per pound.	Yarn, 40s, mule twist, per pound.	Difference to manufacturer per pound.
January 1, 1877	$0 14	$0 23	$0 09
January 1, 1878	12	20	08
May 1, 1878	12	20	08
September 1, 1878	14	20	07
December 1, 1878	10	18	07
January 1, 1879	11	17	06
May 22, 1879	15	20	05
September 30, 1879	13	19	06
January 1, 1880	14	22	08
February 19, 1880	15	25	10
June 17, 1880	14	23	09

[Inclosure No. 6, with report on cottons.—Translation.]

Letter under date of July 21, 1880, from a German dealer in American goods.

The inspection of the official and private statistical material placed at my disposal regarding the importation and exportation of cotton, yarns, cotton fabrics, &c., between America and Germany, support my conviction that in raw cotton, and in half and wholly manufactured yarns, a more active trade can and must be brought about. To paralyze the dominating influence of the English market I hold to be for the mutual good of both parties interested, viz, America and Germany; which two countries, in not too-far-off time, will find to what a great extent the cultivation of direct relations will subserve their interests.

The most minute and careful investigations would be necessary in order to obtain a clear insight into the facts of the matter; for, singularly enough, the greater number of the chambers of commerce and private parties inquired of in the premises proffer no information which could serve practical purposes. The manufacturers are especially reserved, the same believing in many cases that a use of the information imparted by them might be made which would injure their business, while, exactly on the contrary, the stubborn holding on to English mediation is against their interests.

From information gathered from shipping ports, it is already evident (facts proven, too, by my private investigations) that direct importations from America stand far below the figure of the importations of American as well as East Indian cotton passing through English hands. Even South America, Venezuela, and the West Indies are competing with the United States more successfully than need be, although such competition has fallen off since 1875. To furnish figures in support of the above facts is very difficult, for the reason that this trade is not confined to a single center, but besides the North German ports there also come into consideration, for Rhineland and Westphalia, the Netherland ports; for Alsace-Lorraine and Baden, Havre.

To give clear answers to these questions and bring more prosperity into this branch of business through the cultivation of direct relations, it is necessary to have the services of suitable agents, well acquainted with the German field of operations, with a clear perception of the ways and means for effecting sales and making the profit absorbing English mediation superfluous. On the other hand, it is of the highest interest that those American firms that intend to export the goods in question do not delay in furnishing samples and offers, the latter based on Liverpool market prices.

Here follow a few figures from Hamburg's trade statistics:

In 1879 were imported (inclusive transit for Germany) 119,359 bales of cotton; sold from this quantity, in Hamburg alone, 17,536 bales. For the first figure America furnished 12,791 bales; England, 75,800 bales. From this England's supremacy appears, which in like manner could be shown for other ports.

After the severe healing process which trade and business in general has gone through in Germany since the "swindle years," it is certain that the German market may lay claim to the greatest steadiness, and of ready money there is an abundance. Almost all the chamber of commerce and bank reports prove this latter fact. German thoroughness, sometimes not subservient to German interest, has, in the above respects, by a very energetic renovating process, brought clearness into the commercial situation. It will be no easy matter to break up the old habit of buying cotton through England, in favor of obtaining the same direct, from the fact that the German peculiarity just mentioned clings in a very conservative manner to old estab-

lished connections; yet the advantages to be gained are so evident that suitable agents could not fail to succeed, if they are supported from America with prompt instructions, samples, and offers.

I have decided, for myself, not to lose sight of this matter, and to carefully follow the course of trade in cotton; also will furnish, from time to time, more detailed and accurate reports, which will be all the more correct, the more I shall find occasion to occupy myself with this article. The fact, also, might prove of interest that, as I am informed from the Silesian border, large quantities of raw cotton pass through Germany to Austria.

The idea of endeavoring to import cotton fabrics and other made goods from there into Germany I consider will fail of being realized, except for flush shipments, and this on account of the great capacities for production of German manufactories, excellent machinery, comparatively cheap labor, experienced and diligent workmen, and last, but not least, the lately inaugurated system of duties for the protection of home industry.

From the districts principally had in view, chambers of commerce reports are in my hands, out of which, but especially out of the information otherwise gathered by me, I learn that with us direct importation is called what comes through English mediation. Liverpool market reports and market prices are the ruling ones, Liverpool and Manchester firms the *direct* sale-parties. That the monopoly of the cotton business as held by the eminently commercial English people leaves them large profits, which are thus lost to the producers and consumers, is unquestionable.

American yarns are, as I had occasion to remark before, salable and not unpopular when imported direct, although the trade in them is much depressed by the increased German duties.

The business energy peculiar to the Americans should make it desirable for them to seek direct communication with Germany in all due earnestness, and not allow them to be repelled by the German reserve as at first shown.

Undoubtedly various remunerative fields of operation will in time be found, on which both countries will be able more than heretofore to labor with mutual profit. Though Germany has in the last fifteen years made great progress politically, there still fails, from a commercial standpoint, in spite of many changes for the better, the uniform policy which brings the English so many advantages. In this respect, too, many old forms and encumbrances must disappear, and then Germany's central position in the European Continent will make her an important factor for the commerce of the world.

The advantages will then be great for those countries which will have secured domiciles in the German market.

[Inclosure No. 7, with report on cottons—duplicate.]

Prices of some of the most salable English cotton yarns in the North German markets at the close of each month in the year 1879.

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
	Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Water:												
Brooke, No 20	15	16	17	18	20	19	18	19	18	19	20	20
Taylor, No. 30	18	18	19	20	22	22	20	21	21	21	22	23
Arrowsmith, No. 30	23	23	24	24	25	25	24	24	24	24	25	26
Medio: Townhead, No. 32	17	16	17	20	20	19	19	19	19	20	21	22
Mule: Marsland, No. 40	21	21	21	22	23	23	22	23	22	23	23	23
Sewing: Mannock, No. 20	18	17	18	20	21	20	19	20	18	20	21	22
Thread:												
Whiteley, No. 40	19	20	20	22	23	23	21	21	21	22	23	23
Dyson, No. 60	26	26	26	28	29	28	27	27	27	27	28	28
Buckley, No. 80	38	38	39	41	42	41	40	40	39	39	40	40
Williams, No. 100	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Williams, No. 120	1	1	1	1	1	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1	1
No. 45 warp cops:												
Crosses & Winkworth, I	31	31	29	31	31	31	30	30	29	30	30	30
Crosses & Winkworth, II	29	29	27	29	29	29	28	28	27	28	28	28
Park Mill, I	30	29	29	30	31	30	31	30	28	28	29	30
Park Mill, II	27	26	26	28	29	28	29	28	26	26	27	28

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort-on-Main, July 15, 1880.

LIST OF SAMPLES OF COTTON GOODS.

[Transmitted with Consul-General Lee's report of July 15, 1880, on cotton trade and cotton manufactures of Germany.]

No. 1. Salable No. 20 English water twist, received June 26, 1880 from F. Kreitz, Kanzleirath, of München-Gladbach. The best qualities of this yarn are worth 22½, and the inferior 21½ cents.

No. 2. Same as No. 1.

No. 3. Received July 3, 1880, from Erwin Roelker, of Frankfort-on-the-Main. German shirting in whole breadth, from 16½ yarn, as the same is generally made in Augsburg, Esslingen, and Münster in Alsace. Factory price 15, and retail price 19 cents per meter.

No. 4. Received July 3, 1880, from Erwin Roelker, of Frankfort-on-the-Main. German shirting in whole breadth, from 15–15 yarn, as the same is generally made in Augsburg, Esslingen, and Münster in Alsace. Factory price 9½, and retail price 12 cents per meter.

No. 5. Received July 3, 1880, from Erwin Roelker, of Frankfort-on-the-Main. German shirting in whole breadth, from 19–15 yarn, as the same is generally made in Augsburg, Esslingen, and Münster in Alsace. Factory price 6, and retail price 8 cents per meter.

No. 6. Received July 3, 1880, from Erwin Roelker, of Frankfort-on-the-Main. German shirting in whole breadth, from 36–36 yarn, as the same is generally made in Augsburg, Esslingen, and Münster in Alsace. Factory price 11 cents, retail price 14 cents per meter.

No. 7. Received July 3, 1880, from Erwin Roelker, of Frankfort-on-the-Main. German shirting in whole breadth, from 15–14 yarn, as the same is generally made in Augsburg, Esslingen, and Münster in Alsace. Factory price 11 cents, retail price 14 cents per meter.

No. 8. Received July 3, 1880, from Erwin Roelker, of Frankfort-on-the-Main. German shirting in whole breadth, from 16–12 yarn, as the same is generally made in Augsburg, Esslingen, and Münster in Alsace. Factory price 12 cents, retail price 15 cents per meter.

No. 9. Received July 3, 1880, from Erwin Roelker, of Frankfort-on-the-Main. German shirting in whole breadth, from 16–10 yarn, as the same is generally made in Augsburg, Esslingen, and Münster in Alsace. Factory price 13 cents, retail price 17 cents per meter.

No. 10. Received July 5, from Gebrüder Busch, of München-Gladbach. Warp from No. 20 water yarn.

No. 11. Received July 5, from Gebrüder Busch, of München-Gladbach. Warp from No. 20 water yarn.

No. 12. Received July 5, from Gebrüder Busch, of München-Gladbach. Warp from No. 20 water yarn.

No. 13. Received July 5, from Gebrüder Busch, of München-Gladbach. Warp from No. 20 water yarn.

No. 14. Received July 5, from Gebrüder Busch, of München-Gladbach. Warp from No. 20 water yarn.

No. 15. Received July 5, from Gebrüder Busch, of München-Gladbach. Warp from No. 20 water yarn.

No. 16. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

No. 17. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

No. 18. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

No. 19. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

No. 20. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

No. 21. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

No. 22. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

No. 23. Received July 1, 1880, from A. H. F. Kinne, of Essen-on-the Ruhr. No particulars given.

The following samples (No. 24 to No. 62) were received from Ferdinand Heuer, of Frankfort-on-the-Main, July 24, 1880:

No. 24. Shirting from Ettingen, 85 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 9½ cents per meter.

No. 25. Shirting from Ettingen, 90 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 11½ cents per meter.

No. 26. Shirting from Ettingen, 85 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 13½ cents per meter.

No. 27. Shirting from Ettingen, 85 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 15½ cents per meter.

No. 28. Shirting of German manufacture, 88 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 11 cents per meter.

No. 29. Shirting of German manufacture, 88 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 13 cents per meter.

No. 30. Shirting from Alsace, 84 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 13 cents per meter.

No. 31. Shirting from Alsace, 85 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 13 cents per meter.

No. 32. Shirting from Alsace, 83 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 15 cents per meter.

No. 33. Shirting from Alsace, 85 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 15 cents per meter.

No. 34. Shirting from Alsace, 85 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 16 cents per meter.

No. 35. Shirting from New York mills, 90 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 15½ cents per meter.

No. 36. Shirting (English). Wholesale price, 12½ cents per yard.

No. 37. Shirting (English). Wholesale price, 14½ cents per yard.

No. 38. Shirting (English). Wholesale price, 19½ cents per yard.

No. 39. Lyman twill, 82 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 15 cents per meter.

No. 40. American twill, 88 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 18 cents per meter.

No. 41. Horrockses twill. Wholesale price, 14½ cents per yard.

No. 42. Horrockses twill. Wholesale price, 18 cents per yard.

No. 43. Horrockses twill. Wholesale price, 27 cents per yard.

No. 44. Croise (Alsace), 82 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 20 cents per meter.

No. 45. Croise (Alsace), 82 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 23½ cents per meter.

No. 46. Cambric (English). Wholesale price, $1.70 per piece of 12 yards.

No. 47. Cambric (English). Wholesale price, $1.75 per piece of 12 yards.

No. 48. Cambric (English). Wholesale price, $2.19½ per piece of 12 yards.

No. 49. Cambric (English). Wholesale price, $4.49½ per piece of 12 yards.

No. 50. Cambric (English). Wholesale price, $2.18½ per piece of 12 yards.

No. 51. American shirting (White Rock), which is now preferred in the market of Frankfort-on-the-Main, a cheaper article being rendered unmerchantable by the increased tariff.

No. 52. American shirting (Wamsutta Mills), which is now preferred in the market of Frankfort-on-the-Main, a cheaper article being rendered unmerchantable by the increased tariff.

No. 53. American shirting (New York Mills), which is now preferred in the market of Frankfort-on-the-Main, a cheaper article being rendered unmerchantableby the increased tariff.

No. 54. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wohlesale price, 24 cents per meter.

No. 55. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 16 cents per meter.

No. 56. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 16 cents per meter.

No. 57. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 21½ cents per meter.

No. 58. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 12 cents per meter.

No. 59. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 11½ cents per meter.

No. 60. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 12 cents per meter.

No. 61. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 13 cents per meter.

No. 62. Cretonnes (Alsace), 80 centimeters broad. Wholesale price, 16 cents per meter.

The following samples (No. 63 to No. 86, inclusive) were received from Hirsch Brothers, of Mannheim, July 31, 1880, and were manufactured within the Mannheim consular district:

No. 63. Cotton cloth, 80 centimeters wide, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 15 cents per meter.

No. 64. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 15 cents per meter.

No. 65. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 16 cents per meter.

No. 66. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 17 cents per meter.

No. 67. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 19 cents per meter.

No. 68. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 19 cents per meter.

No. 69. Cotton cloth, 80 centimeters wide, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 16 cents per meter.

No. 70. "Silesia," 6-4, 84 centimeters wide. Wholesale price, 23 cents per meter.

No. 71. "Silesia," 6-4. Wholesale price, 24 cents per meter.

No. 72. "Silesia," 6-4. Wholesale price, 24 cents per meter.

No. 73. "Silesia," 6-4. Wholesale price, 25 cents per meter.

No. 74. "Silesia," 6-4. Wholesale price, 26 cents per meter.

No. 75. "Silesia," 6-4. Wholesale price, 30 cents per meter.

No. 76. "Ginghams," 100 centimeters wide, manufactured in Germany, partly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 14 cents per meter.

No. 77. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 17 cents per meter.

No. 78. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 16 cents per meter.

No. 79. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 15 cents per meter.

No. 80. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 13½ cents per meter.

No. 81. Cotton cloth, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 11½ cents per meter.

No. 82. Cotton cloth, 84 centimeters wide, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 8 cents per meter.

No. 83. Cotton cloth, 84 centimeters wide, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 13½ cents per meter.

No. 84. Cotton cloth, 80 centimeters wide, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 13 cents per meter.

No. 85. Cotton cloth, 90 centimeters wide, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 12½ cents per meter.

No. 86. Cotton cloth, 84 centimeters wide, manufactured wholly from cotton yarns. Wholesale price, 6½ cents per meter.

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, July 15, 1880.

THE NETHERLANDS.

IMPORTS OF COTTON YARNS INTO, AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON GOODS IN, THE CONSULAR DISTRICT OF AMSTERDAM.

REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN.

In accordance with my instructions from the department of the 19th of March last, I have the honor herewith to submit a report relating to the subject of the imports of and trade in cotton yarns and manufactures of cotton within this consular district.

From the published report of the department of finance, at the Hague, of the imports and exports of the Netherlands for the year 1878 it appears that this country imported from England cotton yarns, as following stated and classified, namely:

Yarns not twisted or dyed.—Thirty-six million six hundred and eleven thousand five hundred and fifty-seven pounds, valued at $7,969,863.

Yarns unbleached, double twisted.—Three million six hundred and twenty-seven thousand eight hundred and forty-nine pounds, valued at $789,736.

Yarns twisted, dyed, or undyed.—Weights not stated, valued at $315,733.

Yarns reeled on spools.—Quantity not given, valued at $81,021.

ANSWERS TO FIRST SERIES OF INQUIRIES.

No. 1. Hardly any into the part of Amsterdam, but into the district represented by me the greater portion of the entire imports is supposed to have found its way, as there are within it the larger number and some of the principal cotton goods manufacturing establishments. The actual quantity and its value seems not to be ascertainable.

About three-fourths of the whole quantity imported into Holland in 1878, was originally landed at Rotterdam, and nearly all the remainder at the port of Harlingen.

No. 2. There are no published records extant showing yarn imports so designated or classified. I applied to a great number of persons most familiar with the article, understanding the trade, and having a thorough knowledge of the subject, but they all claimed to be unable to give data.

No. 3. The numbers of these yarns were: Number 14, 16, 30, 32, 36, and 40. As to the prices it sold for I could only ascertain that desired information as to that can be found in the Textile Manufacturer and The Economist English publications, covering the period in question.

No. 4. I can only answer this question by saying that, according to my information, the greatest part was imported in pin cops, twist or warp cops, and a part of it in sized warps.

No. 5. As to the numbers of this yarn and its price my answer to question 3 must also serve as an answer to this question.

No. 6. It is principally used in the manufacture of the following-named articles, viz: Brown and bleached sheetings and shirtings, madapollams, drills and jeans, cambrics, calicoes or prints, beaverteens or moleskins, turkey red goods, and other articles. Some of the articles enumerated are manufactured almost exclusively for the export trade, and particularly for Java, but considerable quantities are also shipped to British India, to Brazil, and to China. The home trade or local demand, in some of the articles mentioned, is supplied to a very large extent.

No. 7. Samples as asked for by this question go herewith as well as a statement giving information relating to them.

No. 8. They do not appear to be of uniform quality, as I learn a preference is usually given to the make of such spinners at Manchester as are known under the firm names of Wm. Bracewell & Sons; Swainson, Birley & Co.; Henry Lees & Bros.; Robert Healy & Sons, and Hugh Birley. Their trade-marks I have not been able to ascertain.

No. 9. There are none.

No. 10. The firm name of English commission houses at Manchester, of whom the manufacturers of this country principally purchase their supplies, are said to be the following, namely: Hilterman Brothers, Vos Delius, Salomonson & Co., S. D. Bles & Sons, Schmuck, Suche & Co., H. S. Strauss & Bro., C. Tafel & Co., and Willing & Co.

No. 11. There are no such American commission houses now established in this city or district. To meet those requirements I would mention the name of the Nederlandsche Handels Maatschappy (Trading Society of the Netherlands). From trustworthy information received by me I am prepared to state that the Trading Society of the Netherlands, whose principal office is in this city, is disposed to undertake the introduction and sale of American cotton yarns in this country if the quotations of the yarns and other conditions, which are first to be proposed to it by American manufacturers, will be of such a character as to justify expectations of the success of the enterprise. The high character of the

"Trading Society" as a commercial organization, as well as the great influence it exerts throughout Holland, its colonies, and other parts of the the world, are facts no doubt well known and understood in commercial circles in the United States. The "Trading Society" has been for some time and is now using its endeavors for the promotion of the commercial intercourse between Holland, its colonies, and the United States. It has established an agency at New York some time ago, located at No. 142 Pearl street, New York. If American yarn manufacturers or exporters of that article will confer upon the subject in question with the "Trading Society's" agents, it is quite possible that so doing will lead to practical and favorable results.

No. 12. The manufacturers in this country purchase yarns regularly from commission merchants at Manchester, or give their orders to and make contracts with the local or resident agents of those commission merchants.

No. 13. Please refer to my answer to question No. 7, as it is also my reply to this question.

No. 14. The same as my No. 7.

No. 15. The same as my No. 7.

No. 16. What charges would be incurred on the shipment to this locality on cotton yarns, &c., from the United States I am unable to state. The expenses attending the shipment of yarns from Manchester to this locality are said to amount to from 6¾ to 7¼ per cent. One and a half per cent. is for commissions and the balance covers the cost of packing, carriage, warehouse expenses, labor, insurance, &c. On cotton yarns there is no import duty. On manufactured cotton goods there is an import duty of 5 per cent., which, added to all other charges incurred in importing such goods from England, increases them to 10 per cent. as I am informed.

No. 17.—The names of the cities and places where cotton yarns are principally consumed are as follows: Almelo, Enschedé, Nyverdal, Oldenzaal, Borne, Hengelo, Goor, Delden, Amersfoort, Eindhoven, Gemert, Nuenen, Hilversum, Veenendaal, Helmond, Leiden, and Haarlem. The numbers as given in my answer to question 7 seem to be best adapted to the wants of the consumers. As to the probable quantity necessary for an annual supply I am not satisfactorily enough informed to justify me to make even an approximate estimate.

No. 18. Some of the yarn is used in the manufacture of knitting yarn. I have not learned that any of it enters into the manufacture of rope, lines, cords or twines, &c.

No. 19. In answer to this question I beg to state that my investigations into the subject incline me to the belief that American yarn spinners or exporters of the articles, who desire or intend to establish a large and lasting trade in this country, must be in position and prepared to satisfy the consumers of the article that they can at all times purchase American yarns at such rates as to enable them to lay them down here at a cost no greater than the English article can now be procured for, and for less, if possible. They must likewise be in position and prepared to convince consumers in this country that if contracts were made with or orders given to them, they would be at all times, under all circumstances, and in all respects, promptly and regularly carried out.

Concerning the imports of and trade in manufactured cotton goods within this consular district, and in Holland generally, I beg respectfully to refer to my annual report for the year 1878; the observations I then made upon this subject are just as pertinent as now.

No. 20. Of yarns the direct imports into the port of Amsterdam are very trifling. At the port of Harlingen, which is considered to be within this consular district, the direct imports are usually extensive, and large quantities are also finding their way, both by land and water carriage, into this district from Rotterdam.

No. 21. A detailed statement as asked for by this question and relating to the samples accompanying this report is herewith transmitted.

No. 22. I am at this time not in position to add anything further to this report, but shall continue investigation into the subject and report upon it again if anything noteworthy or of importance should come under my observation.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, August 19, 1880.

STATEMENT CONTAINING INFORMATION RELATING TO THE SAMPLES OF COTTON GOODS TRANSMITTED BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN.

The samples numbered from No. 1 to 23 are of cotton goods manufactured in Holland of yarns imported from England. They have been procured by me of the Messrs. de Vries, Van Buuren & Co., between the 1st and 15th of August, 1880. This firm is said to be the principal one at Amsterdam engaged in importing dry goods and in wholesaling and retailing foreign and home manufactured goods. The labels attached to the samples show the width of the goods in inches, the length of the pieces in yards, and the wholesale cost price in United States currency. The price, I am informed, is the net cash price. The retail price is not stated.

My informants claim that the retail price cannot be given with any degree of accuracy or reliability, as that varies too much as between different sections in the country, and even as between different cities and towns. I can, however, state, from personal knowledge and experience on this point, that, as a rule, a very good profit is realized by retailers on all kinds of cotton goods as well as on other more costly fabrics, and even staple cotton goods and leading articles of domestics make no exception to this rule. As to the annual salable quantities in yards of all or any of the goods of which I send samples, I am unable to give any information.

No one of all the parties I consulted as to this point would venture to give even an estimate. My own knowledge regarding it is too limited to justify me to make such an estimate.

The samples numbered from No. 24 to 44 are also of cotton goods made in Holland of yarns imported from England, and, in part, of yarns spun in this country. They have been procured by me from the Messrs. Bottenheim Brothers of this city, between the 1st and 15th of August 1880. The Messrs. Bottenheim Brothers are themselves cotton-spinners, and are also interested in the manufacture of cotton goods. They are directors of the Veenendaalsche cotton mills, situated in the Province of Utrecht, and owners and operators of the cotton spinnery at Heilversum in the Province of North Holland. The labels attached to those samples also show the width of the goods, the length of the pieces, and the wholesale cost price in United States currency. As to the retail

prices of the goods and the annual salable quantities, I beg to refer to my above remarks on these points, as they are also to apply here.

The samples numbered from No. 45 to 81 are of cotton goods manufactured in England and imported into this country. They have also been procured by me of the Messrs. Bottenheim Brothers between the 1st and 15th of August, 1880. The labels attached to them are marked precisely as those above described. The wholesale price given is the cost price of the goods laid down here, and includes 10 per cent., being all expenses incurred on account of purchase in and shipment from England, principally Manchester, to this city. As to the retail prices and annual salable quantities, I am obliged again to refer to my above remarks on these points. I am at present not informed as to any further particulars relating to the goods of which I forward samples.

COTTON MANUFACTURES IN HOLLAND.

REPORTS BY CONSUL WINTER, OF ROTTERDAM.

Pursuant to consular instructions, I have the honor to transmit the following report in regard to the trade in cotton yarns and cotton manufactured goods in Central and South Holland, and to accompany said report with samples of Dutch and English manufactured cotton fabrics, representing the principal lines of cotton manufactured goods suitable to the Holland market:

COTTON YARNS.

According to statistics obtained from the collector of customs at this port in the year 1878, there were imported into Holland from England 42,111,113 pounds of cotton yarn, valued at $9,159,165, being about 22 cents per pound. Of this amount at least 25,000,000 pounds were *in transitu* for other countries.

The exact quantity of cotton yarn imported from England into South Holland during the above period is not given in the statistics, as the imports of yarns from all countries are included in the estimates, amounting in the aggregate to 32,944,552 pounds. Not more than one-fourth of this amount was for Dutch consumption; three-fourths at least were *in transitu* for Germany, Belgium, and other countries. There is no duty imposed on cotton yarns imported into the Netherlands by the Dutch Government, and consequently no record is kept, either of the exact amount of cotton yarn consumed by the Dutch manufactories, or description of the various sorts and qualities of yarns in demand. A portion of these yarns are packed in papers of ten pounds, each package containing ten knots of one pound each, and known in the trade as water twist, and numbered from 10 to 60. The wholesale price of these yarns varies from 20 to 24 cents per pound, United States gold. Another portion of these yarns is packed in casks of 600 and 1,000 pounds each, in pin cops, and known as weft yarn, of which the numbers are from 16 to 60. The average wholesale price per pound was 22 cents, United States gold. In regard to the place whence these yarns are imported, Manchester and its environs furnish the greater part of the cotton yarns that pass through the custom-house at this port. The manufacturers who receive consignments of these yarns, respectfully decline to give the addresses of the English manufacturers and merchants who trade in cotton yarns and cotton goods.

The importation of cotton yarns from the United States for the year 1878 amounted to 6,500 pounds, of which 6,000 were *in transitu* for Belgium.

There are no merchants in Rotterdam who receive cotton yarns on commission or for their own account. The goods are either purchased direct by the Dutch manufacturers or are *in transitu* for other countries.

The addresses of the principal manufacturers of cotton goods of Central and South Holland are as follows: The Koninklyke Stoom Weavery, Messrs. S. Bendien and Sons; Messrs. Scholten Brothers & Co., and Messrs. Ankersmit & Co., located respectively at Almelo, in the province of Overyssel. Messrs. Willink & Co., and Messrs. I. Willink and Pachen have their factories at Winterswyk, in the Province of Gelderland. Messrs. C. E. Schroder & Son, at Endhoven, in the Province of North Brabant, and Kinderen von Dame, have their factory at Tilburg, in North Brabant. Messrs. W. Schaffer & Co., of Rotterdam, a responsible and reliable firm of merchants, who receive consignments of raw cotton, would also be glad to correspond with American manufacturers of cotton yarns, with a view to enlarging their trade with the United States.

COTTON FABRICS.

The samples of cotton fabrics transmitted herewith, 39 in all, consisting of brown and gray cotton cloths, bleached sheetings and shirtings, dyed, colored, and printed goods, consisting of ginghams, checks, calicoes, &c., in four packages, numbered 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively, each sample having a label securely attached giving widths of goods in inches, lengths in yards of the pieces, wholesale prices per yard in United States gold, and per cent. profit, retail. Packages Nos. 1 and 2 contain specimens of Dutch manufacture, and packages Nos. 3 and 4 contain samples of English manufacture.

The annual salable quantities of the above-described goods cannot be given with any degree of accuracy, as there are no reliable statistics obtainable.

These samples were obtained from Messrs. J. van Roalte & Sons, wholesale and retail dry goods merchants of Rotterdam. The samples represent the average quality of the goods, and the sort mostly in demand in Holland.

The following are the addresses of some of the leading firms engaged in the wholesale trade in cotton fabrics in Rotterdam: Messrs. J. van Roalte & Sons, Messrs. Knowls & Smith, Messrs. A. J. Polak & Sons, Messrs. W. Samson & Sons, and Wednive, Boas & Jacobson.

The duty on cotton fabrics imported into the Netherlands is 5 per cent. ad valorem. The freight expense from New York to this port for cotton goods would be from 40 to 50 cents per hundred-weight, and marine insurance would be ½ per cent. on value of goods insured; and other expenses, such as fire insurance, labor, storage, &c., would increase the expense from 1 to 1½ per cent. in addition on the valuation of the goods.

Owing to the fact that statistics regarding the commerce in cotton yarns and cotton fabrics in South Holland are unobtainable, a more definite and satisfactory report cannot be furnished at the present time.

Should our manufacturers of cotton yarns and cotton fabrics send over agents to make the acquaintance of Dutch merchants, and to familiarize themselves with the lines of goods in demand, and to learn the Hollanders' way of doing business, and at the same time introduce their houses' goods by exhibiting samples with price-lists and induce-

ments to the Dutch merchants, there is no doubt but that a satisfactory and successful trade would be the final result of such enterprise.

JNO. F. WINTER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rotterdam, October 13, 1880.

FRANCE.

COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF BORDEAUX.

REPORT BY CONSUL GERRISH.

I have the honor to inclose herewith a report, as requested by the Department, concerning the manufacture or sale of cotton yarns and tissues in this district.

The compilation of the statistics and the report itself are due entirely to Mr. Price, the vice consul. As there are no manufactories here from which to obtain the information demanded, it has been a task requiring much skill, patience, and perseverance. The questions submitted were so numerous and detailed that many of the merchants applied to were so suspicious that some grand establishment was being projected to compete with them that they hesitated and refused to give aid in any way. But finally some of the richest and largest houses here—whose names are mentioned—gave Mr. Price the information embraced in the report, as well as the various samples which accompany it. From the customs officials, as usual, every facility was given.

Samples, prices, and statistics have been carefully verified, and I trust that all may prove of value.

B. GERRISH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, August 1, 1881.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL PRICE, OF BORDEAUX.

Every effort in my power has been made to obtain perfect, detailed, and reliable information to respond to the questions contained in the circular of the Department of State, dated March 19, 1880, requesting consular officers to obtain such facts as might be within their reach concerning cotton yarns and tissues of the same material.

I regret to state that on many points my efforts have not been successful, and I have found it impossible to obtain the desired information in accordance with the questions propounded. The director of customs at Bordeaux has been enabled to furnish me with limited information as regards the quantities imported in measurement and value, as the duties collected on the various tissues are paid in the weight and not on the measurement. The same system is applied to the duties levied on cotton yarns.

A table hereto, marked A, will show the quantities on the basis mentioned and such values as have been obtained on the goods imported during the year 1878. In the column headed "general commerce" will

be found all the merchandise of the nature indicated that has entered the port of Bordeaux in bond for the purpose of transportation to either other cities or parts of France, or in transit for other countries, such as the South American republics, Brazil, the French West Indies, Senegal, &c. As the goods in transit or in bond are frequently inaccurately declared, it is probable that only an approximate estimate of this important traffic has been obtained. The column headed "special commerce" on the same table indicates the quantities entered at this port to be delivered to commerce, and upon which duties have been collected. In my endeavors to complete the lack of information from the customs authorities, I have made numerous inquiries of traders and dealers in these articles, and have moreover had interviews with business men in all the branches of tissues; but the facts, so far as obtained, and which will be fully detailed, have not corresponded with my wishes to make this report minute and complete in all its details, a report which should embrace perfect and circumstantial answers to the questions contained in the circular. Nevertheless, I may venture to say that I have gathered intelligence of importance which, though interesting at present, can only be of practical use hereafter, in view of the impossibility of importing cotton yarns and tissues from the United States under the existing prohibitory customs tariff of France. This tariff precludes the entry of almost all articles of cotton manufactures from the United States, and such as are allowed to enter are so heavily taxed that it makes them prohibitive in fact.

That marked improvement in the commercial and industrial interests of the United States can be reached is undoubted, if the difficulties which exclude her from competition with more favored nations could in an equitable manner be removed.

Speculating on the removal of this barrier called "general tariff,"* which not only excludes our cotton goods from the markets of France, but debars numerous other articles of American manufacture from entering this country, it can confidently be asserted that, if the excellency of our goods can be shown with fair prices, dealers here, as well as in the United States, would be stimulated to renewed exertions in their endeavors to secure closer commercial relations. Merchants generally acknowledge the leading position that our manufacturers have taken in many articles in which European workmen had once no rivals.

Although a large and rapidly increasing trade, principally in provisions, has been established between the United States and this city, the latter supplying many of the neighboring towns and villages, and many of the important cities and towns in the southwest of France, still there is a vast field for extending the commerce of American products and industries thus far scarcely known. Such products could undoubtedly be disposed of, perhaps, only in limited quantities at the start, if the articles were known in the market and agencies for their sale established. To the present time but little interest has been displayed in enlarging the commercial relations between Bordeaux and the United States. The trivial efforts made by a few dealers in certain American articles have been of no profitable result on account of their not rightly understanding the requirements of the market in this section. It is above all essential that the qualities, styles, and shapes of the articles demanded, as well as the prejudices of the buyers, be taken into consideration. Prejudices, however, are overcome when the actual advantage of

* See new French tariff, published in full in Monthly Consular Report No. 9, and also supplement to this work.

an article can be demonstrated; and practical efforts, with a little tact, will be sufficient to prove the excellency of our goods.

Bordeaux has every advantage for trade. It is situated on the left bank of the river Garonne, which here forms a magnificent port, one and one-half miles wide and nearly six miles long, and has a population of over 215,000. It is the largest and the principal commercial city in the southwest of France, and its port can safely harbor over 1,000 vessels of all sizes and tonnage. This city not only supplies Europe and the rest of the civilized world with her famous wines, but numerous other articles of trade are transported by several lines of steamers and sailing vessels to all parts of the world.

COTTON YARNS AND TISSUES.

Iam largely indebted for the information herewith, and for the samples I remit, to the courtesy of Messrs. Derry Frères, Cours d'Alsace, and Lorraine, No. 23, importers and wholesale dealers in English and French tissues, and to J. B. Soula, 13 Rue l'hôte, dealers in yarns. These houses gave every facility in their power to me to secure the information required, while other firms fearing, perhaps, a competition with their stock in trade from this consulate, suspiciously withheld whatever knowledge they possessed.

COTTON YARNS.

In the department of the Gironde there are no important cotton industries, but in two small localities, Ste Foi la Grande and Langoirau, a native tissue is manufactured on rude home looms, by farmers, when agricultural labor does not require their exclusive attention. This tissue is called *grisette*, a heavy gross texture of cotton, with a slight mixture of linen, as will be seen by sample herewith marked No. 1; it is sold at wholesale for 1 franc 10 centimes the meter. Between sixty and seventy thousand kilograms of unbleached cotton yarns are employed annually for the manufacture of this fabric. These yarns are demanded of 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, and 14 threads, put up in bundles of 5 kilograms. I herewith remit samples of the yarns mostly employed.

		Francs.
No. 20, of 7 threads, costs	per kilogram	2.25
No. 29, of 8 threads, costs	do	2.60
No. 40, of 12 threads, costs	do	3.10
No. 60, of 14 threads, costs	do	4.50

There is, besides, a yarn, number 16, of two threads employed for the manufacture of an inferior thick cotton cloth at the cost of 1 franc 90 centimes to 2 francs per kilogram. The condition of sale is at 30 days, or 5 per cent. discount for cash. The above-named yarn is also employed for knitting socks and stockings, and for this purpose there is also a considerable quantity of dyed yarn used of from 5 to 14 threads. I inclose three samples, numbered 2, 3, and 4, red, deep blue, and brown. The quantity consumed per annum is estimated at 100,000 kilograms, of all colors and shades, put up in bundles of 1 pound, subdivided into 32 skeins of one-half ounce each. The following are the wholesale prices for the different colors stated:

		Francs.
Brown, from 5 to 14 threads	per pound	2.90
Brown, corded, from 5 to 14 threads	do	3.90
Light blue, from 5 to 14 threads	do	3.50
Dark blue, from 5 to 14 threads	do	3.70
Turkish blue, from 5 to 14 threads	do	4.00
Gray blue, from 5 to 14 threads	do	4.15
Red, extra dyed, from 5 to 14 threads	do	5.70

COTTON TISSUES.

Importations from England of tissues into this section of France consist principally of cloths composed of wool and cotton called meltons, impermeables, ratines, unions pilots, alpacas, and Sicilians. The value of the importation of these fabrics amounts to a sum of considerable importance, and should the department require details in respect to the quantities, qualities, and prices of these goods the information can readily be obtained. At a certain time English manufacturers made trials of their cotton tissues for this market in unbleached cloths as well as in fancy calicoes. Their efforts, however, were not successful. The failure is imputed to various causes, and among them that the goods were far too light, and could with difficulty, and only with loss, be disposed of, the fabrics of Rouen in the north of France being preferred by consumers.

An article readily disposed of by local dealers, and for which there is a constant and large demand, when the styles and qualities correspond to the taste of the public, is a fabric called *toile de Vichy*, and of which I forward several samples numbered 5 and 6, striped, checked patterns, and plaids. The fact must be taken into consideration, however, that the patterns and designs change from year to year, that they are very numerous and of great variety both in colors and designs. About 40,000 pieces are sold annually in this city, valued approximately at 15,000,000 francs. The width of this texture is 80 centimeters; each piece contains 50 meters of length, and weighing 6½ kilograms. The prices vary from 72 to 80 centimes the meter, 4 per cent. discount for cash. This article is manufactured at Roanne, in the department of the Loire. It is to be noted that manufacturers have, within the past ten years, changed their machinery and installed Swiss looms, and it is estimated that over 6,000 of them are used in weaving this fabric. Five or six manufacturers are preferred for their toiles de Vichy. This preference is owing to the good taste displayed in their designs, the solidity of the colors, and the quality of the cloth.

I transmit two samples, numbered 6, of another fancy cotton tissue called *coton indestructible*, also manufactured at Roanne; the width is one meter, the length of each piece 50 meters, weighing 8½ kilograms, and sold by the manufacturers at from 92 to 95 centimes per meter. This article has also the favor of the public and is always in demand; there are only about twelve or fifteen different patterns, mostly narrow stripes and small checks, the dark shades having the preference of buyers. Another cotton tissue which is considered a staple article, and for which there is a large and constant demand, being extensively dealt in by wholesale and retail dealers in this department, is an unbleached cotton cloth, designated by the name of *toile coton écrue*, samples herewith, No. 4. This texture is manufactured in large quantities by one of the largest manufacturing houses of Rouen, Waddington fils & Cie. The brother of the recent minister of foreign affairs is at the head of this firm. This tissue is bought at the manufactory at different prices. The quality mostly in demand in this section is in pieces weighing 14 kilograms the hundred meters, 80 centimeters in width. The same width serves as the basis for lighter as well as heavier cloth of this texture.

The quality weighing 14 kilograms the 100 meters is, at present, bought at 44 centimes the meter; at 47 centimes the quality weighing 16 kilograms the 100 meters; at 50 centimes the quality weighing 18 kilograms the 100 meters, and so on in the same proportion. The above-named house manufacture these goods at various prices as well as in different

widths. The goods fitted for general acceptance are of the sample mentioned. One sample as "1 filet rouge" (1 red stripe), 80 centimeters wide, weighing 18 kilograms the 100 meters, is sold at 57 centimes the meter by the manufacturer; the other sample, No. 5, designated 2 filets rouges (2 red stripes), is of the same width and weighs 20 kilograms the 100 meters, and is worth 70 centimes per meter. Some qualities of superior make and even tissue are sold at a slight advance of the above-mentioned prices. This firm manufactures another sort, thicker and inferior in quality, which is known by a green stripe and sold by the manufacturers at the following prices:

1. Green stripe, width 80 centimeters, weight 18 kilograms the 100 meters, at 53 centimes per meter.
2. Green stripe, width 80 centimeters, weight 20 kilograms the 100 meters, at 60 centimes per meter.
3. Green stripe, width 80 centimeters, weight 22 kilograms the 100 meters, at 66 centimes per meter.

Although the tissue having for a trade mark the green stripe is cheaper than the same texture having the red, the latter is preferred by consumers.

For the cheaper goods in this tissue the fabrics of M. Courant, also of Rouen, are preferred. I remit samples, as follows:

No. 8, weighing 14 kilograms the 100 meters, 42 centimes the meter.
No. 9, weighing 15 kilograms the 100 meters, 44 centimes the meter.
No. 10, weighing 16 kilograms the 100 meters, 45 centimes the meter.
No. 11, weighing 18 kilograms the 100 meters, 48 centimes the meter.
No. 12, weighing 20 kilograms the 100 meters, 51 centimes the meter.

This article is likewise made in other widths, viz: 65 and 70 centimeters, 1 meter, 1 meter 10, 1 meter 20, up to 1 meter 50. The first-named width, however, is only adapted to the most inferior qualities. I send herewith a complete series of samples. Class S, collection 9, of the manufacture of M. Camentron, at Rouen, one of the most important manufacturers in France. The weight of these goods is determined and exactly followed for each sort. Thus the weight of the kind 65 centimeters wide is 9 kilograms the 100 meters. The actual price regardless of the quantity bought is 33 centimes per meter. Up to width 80 centimeters, inclusive, the price increases 2 centimes for each 5 centimeters additional in width. The difference between 80 and 90 centimeters for all kinds is 6 centimes, and between 90 centimeters and 1 meter for all kinds is 8 centimes.

I also remit a collection numbered 10, series D, of an inferior make in contrast to the former. A few manufacturers make a bleached article of the same cloth as above mentioned, which can be found for sale in all the cities, towns, and villages of France. Both bleached and unbleached are employed for sheetings, shirtings, underclothing, &c., by the middle and poorer classes of society. The bleached tissues are called "*Cretonne Américaine*," and are manufactured by Desgenaitais Frères, at Rouen, and an imitation of the above is made by Alphonse Avrie, called "*Cretonne Amérique*." I add a collection of samples of the latter marked C 13. The very fact of designating this tissue under the name of American cloths by the manufacturers goes far to prove the value set on American tissues of this class, and of their high appreciation by the public. No foreign houses are established in this city dealing in yarns or tissues. This trade is entirely in the hands of native firms; few of these import from England or other manufacturing countries, or buy directly from the manufacturers; the larger portion obtain their goods from commission houses established at Paris.

The most important importers and wholesale dealers in tissues at Bordeaux are Messrs. Devoy Frères, No. 9 Place du Palais, and No. 23 Cours d'Alsace and Lorraine; Messrs. Bonnefon et Monlignie, No. 5 Place du Palais, and Messrs. Préant and Gautier, No. 21 Place du Palais.

The following are the largest dealers in cotton yarns: Mr. J. B. Soula, 13 Rue l'hôte; Messrs. Brousse & Lievre, No. 41 Cours d'Alsace et Lorraine; Mr. Eugene Beguez, No. 53 Cours des Fossés.

The following table, A, will show the quantities and partial values of cotton goods and yarns imported into the port of Bordeaux during the year 1878:

A.—*Table showing the quantities of yarns and tissues of cotton imported from England at the port of Bordeaux during the year* 1878.

Nature of the merchandise.	General commerce.	Value.	Special commerce.	Value.
Cotton yarns:	*Kilograms.*	*Francs.*	*Kilograms.*	*Francs.*
Simple unbleached	1,065	.....	160	.....
Simple colored	200	.....	.....	.....
Twist unbleached	24,910	.....	2,402	.....
Twist bleached	12,732	.....	648	.....
Twist colored	1,952	.....	182	.....
Cotton tissues:				
Dyed cambrics, calicoes, sheetings, and shirtings	433,337	.....	10,330	.....
Printed cambrics, calicoes, sheetings, and shirtings	19,965	125,154	5,906	30,088
Oil-cloth for furniture	720	.....	720	.....
Table linen in pieces	29	180	29	180
Shawls	112	.....	112	.....
Handkerchiefs	2,994	18,043	2,894	17,493
Muslins, unbleached	11	372	11	372
Muslins, printed	11	500	.....	.....
Velvets	873	.....	873	.....
Moleskins	4,365	.....	4,365	.....
Piqués	229	1,843	191	1,085
Blankets	8	63	5	50
Tulles, plain and embroidered	1	11	1	11
Gauzes	4	17	4	17
Hosiery	311	3,391	144	571
Miscellaneous pieces	11,941	66,615	11,894	66,165
Other tissues of cotton	4,032	9,212	962	3,911
Trimmings	10	100	10	100

FREIGHTS.

Steamship rates to the ports of Europe vary according to the quantity of freight offered and the number of vessels loading. For yarns and tissues the steamship companies charge by measurement rather than by weight. Steamship rates from New York to Liverpool are from 20 to 30 shillings per ton of 40 cubic feet. The rates to other European ports where there are direct lines do not greatly vary. The Transatlantic Steamship Company from New York to Havre charge about $11 per ton of 40 cubic feet. The freight from Liverpool, or Havre, to Bordeaux on the regular lines of steamers plying between these ports is about $2 per ton.

A line of steamers is to be established between Bordeaux and New York. The company is organized and the stock nearly taken up; it is probable that it will soon inaugurate the semi-monthly voyages it proposes to make The rates for freight are not yet definitely established, however. I am informed that they will be the same as by the lines to Liverpool and Havre, thus insuring a saving on freight from those ports to this city.

TRADE IN COTTON FABRICS AND COTTON YARNS IN THE CONSULAR DISTRICT OF LYONS.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO.

In response to the circular of the Secretary of State, of March 19, last past, "Separate Circular" in the interest of the cotton manufacturers of the United States, I have the honor to say, that while I could have immediately replied to the same by stating that in the absence of a "tarif conventionnel" (a commercial treaty between the United States and France), and the existence of the present "tarif général," the importation of cotton yarns from the United States into France, except for certain numbers (Nos. 143 and above), and for these a duty of 840 francs per 100 kilos, is prohibited. I took for granted that this fact was known to the Department, and therefore preferred to delay my report until, after careful investigation of the subject, I could render such a report as would prove, if not of immediate practical use, at least valuable as a basis for the future, both with reference to the interest directly in question, and as an aid to the government in its negotiations for a prospective treaty.

I regret to say that after careful study I have found it impracticable to reply *seriatim* to the questions submitted, though I have attempted in some measure to do so. The general reply, however, which I have now the honor to submit, will, I believe, be found to cover the all-important question as to a market for American cotton yarns and cotton goods, and will in this respect, I trust, prove valuable.

General reply to the circular of the Department of State upon the character and amount of the cotton trade within the district (department of the Rhone) embraced by the United States consulate at Lyons.

The consumption of cotton yarns by the manufacturers of Lyons amounts, in round figures, to about $6,000,000 annually. Not quite one-half of this consumption is derived from English spinners, the rest from French or those of Alsace-Lorraine. This consumption may be divided as follows:

$200,000 in yarns doubled and twisted in two, three, and four folds, from Nos. 10 to 80, and a trifling quantity of throstle and mule twist, from Nos. 10 to 30. All these yarns are required in strains and put up in 10-pound bundles, varying in price from 3 to 12 francs the kilogram. These yarns are generally used for making church ornaments and military trimmings.

$200,000 dollars worth of black polished thread for making tafetas with cotton weft, and requiring two-fold mule yarns, from Nos. 40 to 120, the whole of French spinning.

$1,200,000 in single yarns, in pin cops, and known as weft yarn, from Nos. 30 to 70, and required principally for making silks for umbrellas and neck handkerchiefs, and varying in price from 4 francs to 7 francs per kilogram. All these cops are of French spinning.

$1,200,000 for fancy goods of all kinds requiring single and two-fold threads of various numbers from 60 to 200, and varying in price from 5 francs to 30 francs the kilogram, reeled in skeins and made up in ten or eleven pound bundles, according to the thread being English or French.

$3,000,000 of two-fold yarns, gassed or ungassed, for plain silk goods, satin, and others, from Nos. 30 to 180, and varying in price from 3 francs to 30 francs the kilogram, according to the quality. All these yarns are

made up in ten or eleven pounds and reeled in skeins. One-third of this amount is of French spinning, and the remainder, say $2,000,000, of English spinning.

$200,000 of two-fold yarns for hat bands and hat trimmings, requiring different numbers, from 100 to 180, and varying considerably in price, according to the character of the goods for which they are required.

In addition to the foregoing, and directly or indirectly connected with Lyons (Tarare itself, though now separated by a regulation of the department and given to St. Etienne district, belonging to the department of the Rhone), the consumption of St. Etienne and Tarare must be noticed.

The town of Tarare consumes about $300,000, most for plain muslin and fancy muslins for curtains, requiring mule yarn from Nos. 20 to 300, reeled in skeins and packed up in ten-pound bundles. Most of this yarn is of English spinning.

The city of St. Etienne absorbs on an average about $2,000,000 annually, of a great variety of numbers and qualities, and which it is next to impossible to specify. The numbers required vary from 40 to 100, mostly in two-fold thread, of which one half is in French and the other half in English spinning.

Replying to the questions in the order submitted, I would respectfully say:

1. In value (say including Tarare and St. Etienne), $4,500,000 to $5,000,000.

2. See general reply, adding no water twist, no throstle-spun or warp yarn, or, if any, of little value.

3. See general reply.

4, 5, and 6. See general reply.

7. The variety is too great and the mixture with silk too general. The best way is for American manufacturers to send their samples. They can rely upon orders (tariff abolished or modified) if their goods or yarns fairly compete.

8. See general reply.

9. None.

10. English spinners send to their agents or sell direct to manufacturers. The house of Leon Permozel & Co. alone consume $400,000 of cotton yarns. Could give other names, but in the absence of a treaty, and on account of the difficulty of introducing our yarns, deem it for the moment useless.

11. Herman G. Ramsperger, American commission merchant, No. 4 Rue de la Republique, is advantageously located to introduce and sell yarns and cloth to the manufacturers of the United States. He is perfectly responsible.

12. Both ways.

13 and 14. Same reply as to No. 7.

15. Manufacturers should address Mr. Ramsperger.

16. Same reply. Mr. Ramsperger is perfectly competent to give manufacturers and American exporters all and every character of information desired.

17. Lyons, Tarare, and St. Etienne for this part of France.

18. Same reply as No. 15.

19. See general reply.

20. Imported direct.

21 and 22. See general reply.

I must crave the indulgence of the Department for not being more specific in the foregoing replies. The questions are, however, of a purely

business character, and too personal in their nature and demand for an officer of the government, occupied as unremittingly as the consul at Lyons, to be able to respond to more specifically.

The Department will surely have conferred an inestimable service in giving the general facts as herewith presented, and recommending that *private* enterprise secure the rest, it being clearly established through the agency of the government that a lucrative market for American cotton yarns exists in France, a trade for which may be roughly estimated at $25,000,000 annually, provided,

1. A treaty of commerce is made between the United States and France.

2. That our yarns (a by no means difficult matter) are adapted to the wants of the French manufacturer.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, France, August 2, 1880.

TRADE IN COTTON FABRICS AND COTTON YARNS IN LYONS—CONTINUED.

(Supplementary to foregoing report.)

I have the honor to supplement my dispatch of August 2, with the following facts and observations.

The cotton industry is divided into two distinct branches, viz, spinning and weaving. The spinning mills established at Lille, at Rouen, and other less important centers of the north, deliver to the weavers scattered through the north, the east, and the southeast of France the cotton thread according to the strength required for such articles as are demanded for consumption.

The question of common threads does not raise great controversies, but the discussion becomes keen and exciting as soon as the fine threads are touched, those used, for instance, in the manufactures of muslin at Tarare, in this department, and those of mixed tissues at Lyons.

The manufacturers of these two cities argue as follows: The threads No. 50, which on entering Switzerland pay a duty of 4 francs per 100 kilograms, and in Germany a duty of 30 francs, are struck by a duty of 49 francs by the new tariff proposed by the government, which duty is augmented to 54 francs by the commission. Even with this exorbitant tax, which renders competition impossible with Belgium, Germany, and Switzerland, if current supplies from the northern spinning mills could be depended upon, there would be but half the evil. But French spinning factories are imperfectly organized in point of machinery, they cannot produce the quantities required for weaving, and in being condemned to obtain supplies in France they are compelled to use threads of midling confection and to pay much dearer for them than if they could obtain the same from England. Moreover, why favor manufacturers who since 1860 have remained inert, whose inactivity has savored strongly of bad will, who at least have made no effort to respond to the exigencies of consumption? Why sacrifice the assumed labor of 200,000 weavers by a disproportionate protection to 100,000 spinners. Surely the larger number are entitled to consideration. These arguments,

continue the Lyons and Tarare fabricants, become still more topic, if we take as a base for comparison the cotton yarns No. 100. Here there is a tax of 150 francs per 100 kilograms, when in Switzerland the duty is but 4 francs, in Belgium 10 francs, and in Germany 45 francs. The duty thus claimed is simply monstrous, paralyzing the national labor in thus depriving it of the raw material. Here is certainly a series of figures and deductions which would seem to be at the first glance irrefutable. Let us see what the other side has to say in defense.

With regard to customs duties, they say, it is not sufficient to consider the interests of an isolated industry alone. It is necessary to consult the average of all the interests in cause and to secure bread to all French workmen alike. Now, if the barriers are opened to the products of English specimens, those of France would be destroyed at one fell swoop. The cost of establishing a spinnery in the north of France is not less than 60 francs, while it is but 35 francs in England.

The same disproportion exists in the operation of the spindle. The principal cause of this inferiority is in the price of coal—30 francs per ton at Rouen and only 7 francs at Manchester. Labor is qually cheaper in England, one kilogram of thread, No. 28, comes to 22 centimes as the maximum, while in France, factories under the most advantageous circumstances cannot produce the same under a cost of 30 centimes.

Another unfavorable reason exists in the enormous distribution which the English spinner finds throughout the globe. Their spinning-mills can treat a single article; they can spin thick or fine threads without interruption all the year round, because they have customers and incur little or no risk of stopping. It is not thus with French spinners. Their industry is condemned to produce various sorts and to respond to intermittent orders, and instead of having the whole world for clients, their product is scarcely adequate for the exigencies of French consumers.

The French spinner is thus placed, by virtue of these conditions, whether geographically or economically speaking, in a precarious position in proportion to and *vis-a-vis* with his English competitor.

Such are some of the arguments advanced by the opposing parties. Those of the protectionists given above produced in the recent discussion before the Chamber of Deputies a marked impression, that body declining to favor Lyons and Tarare to the prejudice of Rouen and Lille, the more as under the system so severely condemned by the weavers the exports of mixed tissues (cotton and silk in particular) had increased from 60,000,000 to 120,000,000 of francs, which figures are still maintained with an increasing tendency.

In the debate it was argued that the proposed new tariff is a general tariff and not a conventional one, and that if any other nation grants upon certain articles a sufficient reciprocity, such concessions would be met with a like spirit of conciliation consonant with the general interests of industry.

The Chamber before adjourning adopted the new tariff, which as a general rule is that which the government proposed, modified and in some few instances increased by the commission. It was sent to the Senate, but the Legislative Assembly having adjourned soon after, its consideration and final adoption remain for the new session.

One important action of the lower house was its refusal to accede to the proposition to levy duty on raw silks, and their admission in consequence into France continues free. It would be a death blow to Lyons were the assembly to act otherwise.

A treaty of commerce which would admit our cotton yarns and fabrics

on the same equality as those of England would be the source of immense benefit to that important branch of American industry.

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, August 11, 1881.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURES OF NORMANDY.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

The Department by its special circular in March last asked for very explicit information regarding the cotton industry in Europe, and by my dispatch No. 133 I was pleased to afford all the information possible respecting this consular district.

In this report I believe I shall be warranted in going into the subject at greater length, embracing more particularly the section of France hitherto especially devoted and engaged in this manufacture, and which, during a few days' absence, I recently visited. I refer to Normandy. Unlike in England this manufacture is not concentrated in a certain number of cities connected by lines of railway; it is quite widely distributed and situated in the agricultural districts. The existence of a similar industry in a region little favored by special advantages, without coal or iron, insufficient railways, canals, and rivers, is opposed to the received theory which ordinarily selects localities possessing these attributes.

It is quite evident the Norman cotton industry owes its origin to the presence of a population possessing special aptitudes for spinning and weaving.

At the commencement of the present century women still spun as in the days of Homer. The spinning jenny and the reeling mule was soon after improved; to-day the factories are admirably organized and possess few if any traces of their humble and primitive characteristics.

The principal seat of the cotton manufacture is in the basin of the Seine and the neighboring valleys. Not to go too much into detail, fearing to trench upon ground which may be more definitely occupied by my colleagues in that section, I may particularly mention the vast factories of Lillebonne, of Bolbec, of Austreberthe, and of Rouen, the latter city being the center of the French cotton manufacture.

The cotton zone is in fact comprised in the department of the Seine-Inferieure, Eure, Orne, and Calvados. The past year (1879) was generally considered unfavorable for this industry in France, but like in the silk there were few, and, in fact, no failures of importance.

As a rule the fabricants dispose of large capital, and rarely have recourse to the assistance of banks.

Havre imports annually an average of half a million bales of cotton; 43 per cent. comes from America, 30 per cent. from India, 20 per cent. from Brazil, and the balance from other countries. Of this 500,000 bales the manufacturers of Normandy take 160,000 bales, or about one-third of the total import.

As a general rule the Norman workman is quiet, content, and laborious. When his salary falls below the average through hard times he complains, but rarely strikes. He is satisfied when he gains an average

day, even when prosperity marks the time and he would be entitled to exact higher wages.

As to wages, a good spinner can survey 600 to 700 spindles, and reel 500 kilograms of cotton per day. Such earn 52 to 56 francs in 12 days of 11 hours each. The ordinary working hours are from 6 to 9, from 9½ to 1, from 2 to 7 p. m. Women who are expert gain from 2.70 francs to 2 francs 80 centimes, or a little over 50 cents, per diem.

A spinning-mill with 10,000 spindles usually employs 100 hands, besides two overseers and one superintendent. In weaving, a woman can survey two looms as well as a man, and her wages are about the same. Children who know how to weave can attend to one loom.

At present, for 100 looms 100 persons are necessary, besides the finishers, cutters, &c. An overseer has from 70 to 75 looms under his charge. An assistant is under his orders, who is responsible for the direction and survey of the work.

In a weaving factory of 300 looms, 300 workmen, 40 overseers, 1 inspector, and 1 director are employed. The cost of a piece of gray calico of 16 kilograms and 100 meters long is 4 francs 75 centimes for the hand-work. Each loom produces about 460 meters in 15 days, a working day of eleven hours. Each workman having two looms under his charge gains an average of 43 to 44 francs. White calicoes obtain higher prices, *i.e.*, 5 francs for 100 meters. For striped articles, as well as printed or dyed, 5.50 francs are paid. For this labor the workman receives from 46 to 48 francs for two weeks' work, of six days the week.

The price of hand-work has undergone a change during the past two years. As a rule the Norman workman has preferred reduction in working hours to change of wages. On his part the manufacturer is inspired with care for his workmen. In most of the factories savings have been instituted for the old and infirm, relief organized and distributed by the workmen. These savings institutions take the place of the workmen's associations existing elsewhere. The good sense of the French workman is not limited to care for the aged and infirm, but for schools for boys and girls to fit them, in addition, proficiently for work.

It is to be remarked that for lack of education workmen have natural sense. Though a book or a newspaper be absent in the *homes* of workmen, a substantial American cooking stove, serving the purpose of culinary needs as for warmth, is not infrequently to be found. The food of workmen is generally soup and beans, improved a trifle on Sundays and festivals. Since 1854 the number of spindles has been doubled in France, and the consumption of raw cotton is now about one-fourth that of Great Britain. Since 1840, the progress has been as follows: 1820 to 1830, 70,000,000 pounds per annum; 1865 to 1866, 220,000,000 pounds per annum; 1876 to 1878, 328,000,000 pounds per annum.

Though the value of imported and exported cotton is about equal, the country does not manufacture enough yarns, or at least of the qualities, required for her own consumption.

Of the estimated number, 2,400 factories, about one-half are moved by steam; the number of spindles in all France is said to be 5,000,000.

A cotton mill proposed in Lyons.—The question is being agitated here to establish a cotton-spinning mill. Upwards of $600,000 of cotton yarns are now imported and used by the silk fabricants of Lyons. These yarns come from England, Alsace, and the north of France. The yarns produced in France are not suitable or sufficiently adapted to the wants of the silk manufacturers. Cotton enters so largely at present into silk goods, and the demand for such mixtures constantly augmenting, great

attention is being paid to the character of the yarns. As I have previously reported, I believe American yarns would find a ready and large sale in this market, but to be introduced the present proscriptive duties would be abolished or reduced to the terms of existing commercial treaties with other countries. The establishment of a cotton spinnery at Lyons, possessed of all the modern improvements in machinery, would no doubt prove a profitable investment under the present "tarif-général," but with a treaty of commerce with the United States, which would admit our yarns on an equal footing with those of England and Germany, such an undertaking would be attended with very considerable hazard. The superiority of our yarns is everywhere admitted, and the opinion prevails that they could be very easily spun, *i. e.*, the numbers furnished to meet the peculiar wants of the silk and cotton manufacture of Lyons, at St. Etienne and Tarare.

The cotton crop of the globe is estimated at 3,100,000,000 pounds, of which the United States produce two-thirds, the rest being made up between India, Egypt, and Brazil.

This crop, at 11 cents per pound, is worth $341,000,000, and the value of cotton manufactures is estimated at $1,023,000,000, or three times that of the raw material.

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, France, 1880.

THE COTTON INDUSTRY OF ROUEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL RHODES.

The cotton industry of Rouen continues in a drooping condition. There was a slight revival during the latter part of the last year, but it was temporary, and the business soon relapsed into its present state, which has been marked, as during the preceding year, by the closing of several factories, also by a diminution in the hours of labor, or the employment of only a part of the ordinary force, which has reduced a number of workmen to idleness. Besides, there has been a general reduction in the wages of those employed.

From month to month in 1878 the margin between the raw material and the manufactured article diminished, and the production decreased in proportion. A portion of the cotton spinners held their stocks for a rise, during which supplies were furnished at reduced rates from Great Britain. In 1879 the French spinners, unable to carry their stocks, disposed of them at a loss, and during the present year they are running their factories rather to keep them going than for immediate profit, being as usual hard pressed by British competition.

Calico prints, which were formerly exported in considerable quantities, at present can hardly be sold at home on account of this competition. The articles called Rouenneries, long and well known in France, will probably before long, if the present condition continues, cease to be manufactured, owing to the introduction of the English specialties of a similar kind, at prices which appear to defy French competition.

In 1872 there were about 5,000,000 looms used in the manufacture of cotton in France, and 37,741,000 in Great Britain. According to the

best published statistics of 1876, the number of looms had decreased in France by 135,000, and that was considered a prosperous year in cotton industry, as was affirmed by the French minister of commerce in a speech delivered the present year. On the other hand, Great Britain, in the year 1878, had increased to the number of 44,178,000 looms, so that France to-day has about from one-ninth to one-tenth as many looms as England, of whose great production only 15 per cent. is used at home, the rest, 85 per cent., being exported.

The hours of labor in the French cotton factory are 10, being about the same as in the English, and since the late reduction of wages in Great Britain, the wages are nearly the same in both countries. Some of the most interprising spinners of Rouen claim that their machinery is equal to that of the English, and that they have adopted all the important improvements as they have become known. The difference between the two countries, in productive power, appears to lie in the capacity of their respective workmen, the British workman being able to attend to four looms, while the French workman attends to but two. This admission is made by French manufacturers with a certain degree of constraint, for it involves the question of patriotism.

The average workman on the other side of the channel seems to be possessed of more vigor and endurance. He is of a larger frame and is better fed, especially in the way of meat, vegetables, and bread; the nourishment of the Norman workman being largely composed of cheese, soup, and cider. On the other hand, in the higher grades of work, where taste is required, the French workman is greatly superior; but this, it is hardly necessary to add, is of little service in the purely mechanical operation of attending a loom.

In conclusion, it may be said that the cotton industry of Rouen has never been in a worse condition than it has been since April of the present year, since which epoch the fall in the price of the raw material paralyzed all efforts towards a resumption of business. A statement to this effect from the Chamber of Commerce of Rouen, under date of September 20, 1880, is herewith transmitted, addressed on application to the United States consul.

In sympathy with the downward movement in the manufacture of cotton fabrics, other industries have declined, such as the manufactures of chemical products, soap, machinery, Rouen handkerchiefs (a specialty), leather, and the business in olive and flaxseed oils and in distilling. This is especially true in the manufactures of dyeing and printing of textiles, for the excellence of which Rouen has been noted.

ALBERT RHODES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rouen, September 23, 1880.

[Translation.]

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF ROUEN,
Rouen, September 20, 1880.

The President of the Chamber of Commerce of Rouen to Albert Rhodes, esq., United States Consul at Rouen.

SIR: The Chamber of Commerce does not possess such recent statistics as will permit it to give you the material condition of the cotton industry, such as number of establishments in activity in the district of Rouen, for example.

In response to the questions contained in your letter of the 18th instant, I can only furnish exact information concerning the present moral condition of that industry.

Since the beginning of April, the momentary fall in the raw material has completely stopped the business of spinning. The reason may be sought for in the importance of the crops in the cotton countries, the prospect of a considerable saving in the United States, and the offers of English spinners. The fall of spun cotton has gone beyond that of wool cotton, and the few transactions effected, through pressing wants, show a great weakness in the market.

In textures business is bad; stocks partly disposed of the first months of the year have been rapidly filled up. A number of manufacturers have been obliged to lower the wages, and they will soon, in a great measure, reduce the time for working. In spite of these modifications, prices continue to weaken, and no one can foresee the end of this painful situation.

Receive, sir, the assurance of my very distinguished consideration.

For the President,

E. MANCHON,
Secretary, Member of the Chamber.

IMPORTATION OF COTTONS INTO ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL CROSBY, OF FLORENCE.

I have the honor to submit for the information of the Department the following report regarding the consumption and manufacture of cotton goods in Italy, with especial reference to the trade in my district.

There is no country in Europe where cottons are used more than in Italy; from the lady and gentleman to the peasant and mountaineer, cotton vestments are constantly worn, and an old Italian adage says:

"Vestiamo cotone sino a Natale,
Dopo é ita la stagione vernale."

THE MARKETABLE COTTONS.

The finest qualities of cotton stuffs are supplied at present by France and England, though Paris alone dictates the fashion for colors and designs; common qualities, however, are manufactured in Italy, but of most inferior grade. Manchester is the great center of production for this market. The principal cotton manufactures imported into Tuscany from England are gray T-cloths, shirtings, twists, linings, printed shirtings, and other prints. Gray T-cloths of various qualities are usually imported in pieces 24 yards long, and from 27 to 32 inches wide, weighing from 4½ to 7 English pounds the piece, and containing on an average about 30 threads to the 5 millimeters square. Tissues of cotton (bleached) for shirtings enjoy a large sale, and the qualities chiefly imported have generally a length of 40 yards per piece, and contain on an average 36 threads to the 5 millimeters square. Lawns, cambrics, and other light articles weigh less than 7 kilograms to the 100 square meters, and contain more than 35 threads in the 5 millimeters square. The principal imports of cotton yarns (bleached) are the white double (Nos. 6 to 40), which run from 5,000 to 10,000 meters, also sewing cotton on spools for machine work (No. 40).

ITALIAN MANUFACTURES.

Cotton for shirtings, printed, colored, or bleached, cotton woven with 1, 2, or 3 spools, are the qualities most sought after, but of late Italian manufactures are causing a sensible diminution in the imports

from England. Important manufactories of cottons are established at Biella and Turin, in Piedmont, and at Monza and Gallarate, in Lombardy, while in my own district there are one or two small factories at Pisa, Prato, Pontedera, and also at Prato a small one, making goods of cotton and wool mixed. Important manufactories of cotton are also established in all the penitentiary institutions, and the number of prisoners employed at such work is estimated at 6,000, or about one-fourth of those compelled to labor for the state.

The qualities of cotton used in Italy are: raw cotton in bales of 250 kilograms; spinned cotton in bales of 120 packages, weighing 450 kilograms (10 English pounds each package); bleached cottons 36 inches wide, and assorted prints of various stamps.

AMERICAN COTTONS IN ITALY.

Of those of the above-mentioned qualities and styles the following bearing American trade-marks, are sold at the present time in my district.

Masonville Mills, Grosvenor Dale Company.

Waukegan Mills, hundreds, Sayle's bleachery.

Lockwood Company, P. A. L., Fall River bleachery.

Flower of the mill, hundred square water-twist, bleached and finished by B. B. & R. Knight, Providence, R. I.

Fruit of the loom, hundred square, manufactured, bleached, and finished by B. B. & R. Knight, Providence, R. I.

Anchor brand, Dwight Company, shirt-maker's finish, Sayle's bleachery.

Homespun shirting, H. W., manufactured by the Lockwood Company, Fall River bleachery, Waterville, Me.

Wamsutta Mills, O. X. X., New Bedford, Mass.

New York Mills, extra improved, Walcott & Campbell.

ENGLISH COUNTERFEITS OF AMERICAN COTTONS.

I certainly believe, from conversations had with many of the dry goods merchants in this district, that a very large and successful trade can be opened by American manufacturers in bleached cottons, 36 inches wide.

With regard to prints, owing to the constant changes in designs and colors, I am led to believe that very little can be done in this market, except in the very lowest and cheapest grades. As a rule American goods are too good and fine and high priced to compete successfully with inferior qualities supplied by the home and English manufacturers. American cottons and prints of certain well-known brands have had a very good reputation throughout Italy, but several merchants have confidentially informed me that they have been counterfeited by certain English manufacturers and the so-called American cottons, being inferior in every way, have affected the standing of our goods.

ENGLISH MANNER OF DOING BUSINESS IN ITALY.

English manufacturers do not deal directly with buyers, but always through commission houses in England, who send their traveling agents to take orders from the wholesale merchants. These agents usually are provided with a large assortment of samples and trade directly with the largest houses, rarely dealing with retail merchants, as the risk with

this class is very great in this country. The wholesale merchants, being on the spot, can more easily watch over their own interests than a foreign house could under the best circumstances. Sales are usually made at from three to six months, though a great deal is done for cash.

ADVICE TO AMERICAN MERCHANTS.

My advice to American merchants or manufacturers is to appoint agents for the eight provinces or consular districts of Italy, furnishing them with a large assortment of samples, great care being taken that these agents speak and write the Italian language fluently. If the selection is made from men residing in Italy, an indorsement as to honesty and responsibility should, if possible, be obtained from a well established banking house of their place of residence.

ITALIAN TARIFF AND AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN TREATY.

By the general Italian tariff and Austro-Hungarian treaty, England is said to have lost much on cotton goods, tissues, and yarns. This loss is, perhaps, in favor of Italian manufactories for "domestic" gray T-cloths, but not for shirtings, as these are not manufactured in Italy. Nowadays price is everything—quality but little considered; and this is not unnatural, considering the constant changes of fashion. General statements as to loss of imports on any particular article are often slightly untrustworthy. It is necessary to refer to the government statistics to confirm or contradict the assertions.

The following is a statement of duties on weaved cottons:

Raw cotton weavings, weighing less than 7 kilos per 100 m. sq., presenting 27 elementary threads or less in the quarry of ^{mm} side, 80 francs per 100 kilos; and presenting more than 27 threads, 100 francs per 100 kilos. Weighing more than 7, but less than 13 kilos per 100 m. sq. of 27 threads or less, 66 francs per 100 kilos. The same and more than 27 threads, 75 francs per 100 kilos. The same more than 13 kilos per 100 m. sq. and of 27 threads or less, 57 francs per 100 kilos. The same more than 27 threads, 64 francs per 100 kilos.

Base of the weight of weavings.	Presenting 27 threads elementary or less in the quarry of 5mm sides.	Presenting more than 27 threads in the quarry of 5mm sides.
	Francs.	*Francs.*
White cotton weavings:		
Less than 7 kilos per 100 m. sq.....per 100 kilos..	96.00	120.00
Weighing more than 7 but less than 13 kilos per 100 m. sq .....do....	79.20	90.00
Ditto 13 kilos per 100 m. sq .....do....	68.40	76.80
Dyed and colored weavings:		
Less than kilos per 100 m. sq..... do....	115.40	135.80
More of 7 kilos but less of 13 per 100 m. sq .....do....	101.40	110.80
More than 13 kilos, &c .....do....	92.40	99.80
Printed weavings:		
Less than 7 kilos per 100 m. sq.....do....	166.40	190.80
More than 7, but less than 13 per 100 m. sq.....do....	149.20	160.80
More than 13 per 100 m. sq.....do....	138.40	146.80

Raw cotton velvet .....120 francs per 100 kilos.
Dyed cotton velvet .....155 francs per 100 kilos.
White cotton velvet .....140 francs per 100 kilos.

ACTING ON CONSULAR ADVICE.

Last winter I had a long conversation with Mr. Samuel Johnson, of the firm of Garner & Co., of New York, who was spending a few days in Florence, and advised him to appoint an agent and ship some cottons and prints and endeavor to open a direct trade with Italy. I am informed that this agent has been appointed and that samples and goods are on their way out. With care and judgment in the selection of these goods and energy on the part of the agents of any first-class manufacturing house at home, there is no reason why the United States cannot compete most successfully with the European manufacturers, who, up to this date, seem to have the entire control of the Italian market in prints and cottons.

I understand, unofficially, that the Department has issued a circular calling on all consuls for a report upon the importations of cottons into their respective districts from England. Such circular has never reached me, but I take pleasure in giving the above facts regarding this important trade, with the hope that it may induce other American firms to follow the example of Garner & Co., and introduce their goods into this market.

J. SCHUYLER CROSBY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Florence, July 10, 1880.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY OF ITALY.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY, THE IMPORT OF COTTON AND COTTON GOODS, AND THE MARKET FOR AMERICAN COTTONS IN ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL CRAIN, OF MILAN.

Hitherto the importation into Italy of American cotton fabrics and cotton yarns has been inconsiderable; but there seems no good reason why a profitable market for both cannot be established here.

The following table prepared by Signor Ellena, from official statistics, exhibits the extent of the cotton industry in the kingdom in 1877.

No. 1.

Province.	Number of factories.	Motive power in horse-power.		Number of operatives in spinning and twisting.			Number of operatives employed in weaving.		
		Steam.	Water.	Males.	Females.	Children.	Males.	Females.	Children.
Piedmont	171	281	5,099	2,596	3,001	1,509	2,574	3,587	1,124
Liguria	39	445	895	359	1,113	530	658	1,218	221
Lombardy	159	1,181	2,993	1,960	2,098	1,355	3,507	5,555	1,775
Venice	25	18	467	547	406	178	414	1,148	317
Emilia	27	6	17	2	6	1	121	601	149
Umbria	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9	223	.....
The Marches	23	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	184	.....
Tuscany	44	45	7	14	65	.....	265	2,877	2,350
Rome	22	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	121	283	129
Abruzzi and Molise	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	38	.....	3
Campania	67	984	233	961	1,121	409	697	2,243	741
Puglie	45	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	75	288	97
Calabria	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	.....	.....
Sicily	39	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	116	1,762	223
Total	647	2,990	9,703	6,439	7,810	3,982	8,655	19,469	7,129

The cotton industry of Italy—Continued.

Province.	Number of factories.	Number of spindles.		Number of looms.		Number of looms worked by hand.
		Active.	Idle.	Active.	Inactive.	
Piedmont	171	810,174	1,824	3,790	167	1,249
Liguria	39	103,500	1,200	2,048	71	466
Lombardy	159	208,434	12,472	4,125	523	4,096
Venice	25	37,040	2,000	513	58	937
Emilia	27	250	.....	170	60	635
Umbria	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	207
The Marches	23	.....	.....	.....	.....	97
Tuscany	44	350	280	86	.....	2,946
Rome	22	.....	.....	2	.....	356
Abruzzi and Molise	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	22
Campania	67	85,556	1,812	1,544	80	1,205
Preglie	45	.....	.....	40	.....	336
Calabria	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	20
Sicily	39	.....	.....	160	80	1,730
Total	647	715,304	19,558	12,478	1,089	14,300

The number of spindles has since increased and is now estimated at about 900,000.

The importation of cotton fabrics, cotton yarns, and articles made of cotton, into the kingdom for ten years commencing with 1869, and for nine months of 1879, was as follows:

No. 2.—*Quantities imported in the several years.*

Description.	1869.	1870.	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.
Cotton, raw, in bales ..... quintals..	124,531	146,987	292,374	200,251	239,057	308,988
COTTON YARNS.						
Single unbleached yarn ..... do....	59,417	43,975	45,367	44,965	68,683	68,620
Single bleached yarn ..... do....	10,122	9,162	10,868	16,155	11,046	9,986
Single tinted yarn ..... do....	3,641	3,187	3,820	3,319	3,961	3,861
Double or twisted, of all qualities. do....	23,985	19,329	24,749	19,418	25,723	27,111
Warp ..... do....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total ..... do....	97,165	75,653	84,804	83,857	109,313	109,578
COTTON FABRICS.						
Unbleached goods ..... do....	32,149	24,181	27,172	27,126	28,316	32,528
Bleached goods ..... do....	25,429	30,960	25,424	23,928	25,756	23,462
Colored or tinted ..... do....	15,753	13,703	17,561	17,141	18,462	17,460
Cotton prints ..... do....	38,579	29,259	29,873	29,938	32,397	28,957
Total ..... do....	111,910	88,104	100,030	98,133	104,931	102,407
Other articles, such as embroidered and oiled cloths, velvets, tulles, galloons, ribbons, buttons, &c. } do....	7,298	6,237	6,896	7,657	8,500	6,908

No. 2.—*Quantities imported in the several years*—Continued.

Description.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	Nine months in 1879.
Cotton, raw, in bales .....quintals..	485, 951	202, 051	241, 737	209, 953	225, 073
COTTON YARNS.					
Single unbleached yarn.....do....	70, 609	81, 862	78, 085	48, 652	19, 135
Single bleached yarn.....do....	11, 363	11, 767	12, 089	9, 577	2, 553
Single tinted yarn.....do....	4, 154	4, 528	4, 651	3, 244	942
Double or twisted, of all qualities.do....	33, 233	38, 045	34, 110	29, 283	28, 553
Warp.....do....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2, 646
Total.....do....	119, 359	136, 202	128, 885	90, 756	53, 829
COTTON FABRICS.					
Unbleached goods.....do	40, 320	38, 881	33, 389	33, 128	20, 320
Bleached goods.....do....	28, 137	26, 766	26, 639	28, 218	18, 247
Colored or tinted goods .....do ...	22, 318	22, 399	17, 410	14, 461	14, 196
Cotton prints.....do....	35, 328	33, 453	29, 830	26, 458	2, 256
Total.....do....	126, 103	121, 499	107, 268	102, 260	55, 019
Other articles, such as embroidered and oiled cloths, velvets, tulles, galloons, ribbons, buttons, &c. do ...	7, 992	7, 541	8, 844	8, 172	5, 640

There are three establishments for the printing of cottons, viz, at Sallerno, Milan, and Torre Pillico, employing 464 men, 30 women, and 63 children. That at Milan is worked by steam, the other two by water-power.

Considering the quantity of prints used in Italy it is a matter of surprise that this branch of the industry is so little developed. England finds a large market for her printed cottons (calicoes) in Italy, and the same field is open to the American manufacturer. The Italian peasantry, who largely use these goods, prefer gaudy colors and combinations.

As the American taste is different, the goods should be made to please the Italians.

By reference to table No. 2 it will be seen that there is a market here for our cotton yarns. These are principally supplied by England and Switzerland. I am told none come from our country. The importation is caused by the fact that there are not enough Italian spindles to supply the demand.

No. 20 English is the staple yarn. This brings 13.50 Italian paper lire per bundle of 10 pounds English, delivered free here. The import duties range from 18 lire per quintal on the coarse to 90 lire on the fine yarn.

While the purchase in this country hitherto of American shirtings and sheetings has been comparatively small, it has been enough to establish with Italians their superiority.

I can offer no better proof of this than their imitation by Italian manufacturers who are placing their own goods on the market with such marks as this—"American shirtings, finished for the needle," and the figure of an American Indian underneath. This device to sell their own make advertises our superiority, and will create a larger demand for the real articles.

I shall be pleased to forward to any of our manufacturers desiring samples of the most used kinds here, which, from experience, I know is the only way to inform.

DUNHAM J. CRAIN.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, May 29, 1880.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

IMPORTATION OF COTTON YARN INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, OF VIENNA.

In conformity with instruction contained in the cotton-yarn circular of March 19, I beg to report as follows:

In consequence of the absence of statistics, it has been found impossible to give the exact quantities and qualities of cotton yarns imported into this empire from England, since only the total amounts from all countries are reported, and no record is kept of the country from whence they were imported. But as it is a well-known fact that all, or nearly all, the cotton yarns introduced into this country are English spun, the totals imported may be regarded as showing approximately the amount coming from England. Again, much of the cotton yarn employed in the empire does not arrive directly from England, but by way of the neighboring northern states, particularly Germany and Switzerland, so that the tabulated statement accompanying the circular, giving the imports of cotton yarn for 1878 from England into Austria-Hungary at only 3,018,700 pounds, while Holland received 34,194,100 pounds, is manifestly incorrect and apt to mislead. The fact is that during 1878 there were imported into this empire 32,514,680 pounds of English-spun cotton yarns, much the largest part of which was raw and unbleached, leaving only 3,932,060 pounds bleached and dyed.

Great opposition was found on the part of merchants and others engaged in the trade to communicate freely in regard to the facts and figures sought. They felt suspicious that the information obtained might be used against them to the injury of their trade, as a knowledge of the prices and the qualities, and demand for these yarns being essential to entering the trade, would probably induce others to enter into competition with them; they were thus, they felt, rendering up to the public a part of their necessary stock in trade. But particularly on the part of manufacturers of textiles was this opposition most positive and persistent, from the fear that the American manufacturers, with their wonderful machinery and intelligent laborers, might possibly produce the articles suitable to the demands of this market at such prices as would render their own margins unprofitable, although it was everywhere confidently affirmed that American looms could not compete with Austria in point of price.

The result of my investigations, however, brought me to the conclusion that in the question of textile fabrics we could not as yet introduce our manufactures on this market, but that for the lower numbers of cotton yarns, say up to No. 40, there was no apparent good reason why our people could not supply the market direct with homespun yarns. Unfortunately the statistics fail to indicate the quantities of the various numbers imported, but it has been confidently believed that a large portion is above No. 40. Since the 1st of January, 1879, when the new tariff law went into operation, establishing various duties on the several grades of cotton yarns, some little indication is given us as to qualities

and numbers, viz, for 1879 and the first half year of 1880 the quantities and numbers of cotton yarns imported into the empire were as follows:

Cotton yarns.	During year 1879.	During first six months of 1880.	Entry duties per 100 kilograms.
			Florins.
Below No. 12 ..... kilograms..	188, 700	141, 300	6
From 12 to 30 ..... do....	1, 630, 300	800, 500	8
Over 30 ..... do....	7, 797, 100	3, 553, 300	12
Total raw ..... do....	9, 616, 100	4, 495, 100	
Below No. 12 ..... do....	222, 300	129, 300	10
From 12 to 30 ..... do....	308, 600	133, 300	12
Over 30 ..... do....	193, 300	161, 000	16
Total bleached and dyed ..... do....	724, 200	423, 600	
Twisted ..... do....	152, 600	72, 700	20
Special prepared ..... do....	655, 800	417, 800	20
Total imports ..... do....	11, 148, 700	5, 409, 200	

From the foregoing table it would therefore appear that over one-fifth of the importations of cotton yarns into this empire during the last eighteen months, viz, over 3,500,000 kilograms, were of the numbers 30 and under, in which certainly the American manufactures might successfully compete. Furthermore I am personally informed that great quantities of No. 36 (warp-cops) are used by the Austrian power-looms; possibly, therefore, from 40 to 50 per cent. of the total importation of yarn here are open to American competition, and should the difference of climate between England and the United States be compensated by artificial methods employed by the latter, and the construction of American factories be modified so as to furnish the same light and solidity as the English one-story buildings, our manufacturers and spinners may succeed in producing a yarn that in quality may equal the finest or highest English numbers, and thus open a field heretofore closed against us.

In view of the foregoing it will not be expected, therefore, that specific information can be given to each interrogatory contained in the circular. Moreover they take such a wide range and embrace such subjects, that it would require the most intimate knowledge of the trade to enable one to reply thereto satisfactorily or profitably. But such as permit of reply will be found in their numerical order, with such observations as I may be able to make.

1. The official published statistics for 1878 give the total importations of cotton yarns into the empire of Austria-Hungary at 129,921 metrical centners (100 kilograms), raw, and 17,873 metrical centners, bleached and colored, with a total value of 21,542,547 florins, most, if not all, of which consisted of English-spun yarns; but as English mills keep a large assorted stock in various German and Swiss cities, it is frequently the case that Austrian firms obtain their supply from these depots rather than import direct from England. One such depot is kept at Leipsic from whence Bohemian manufacturers have their principal supplies.

2. The singles come on bobbins, and are called pin-cops or warp-cops, according to the use designed to be made of them. The doubles come in bundles of 5 English pounds each.

3. The numbers of this yarn, commencing at No. 30, run up to No. 80 for singles, and from No. 80 to No. 250 for twist or doubles. The prices

ranged from 2.60 florins to 9.50 florins per 5 English pounds. The value of the Austrian florin (paper and silver) was equivalent to about 42 cents United States currency. The prices given in detail were as follows, for 5 English pounds:

	Florins.
No. 30 warp yarn, first quality, from	3–3.10
No. 30 warp yarn, second quallty, from	2.80–2.90
No. 30 weft yarn, from	2.60–2.70
No. 40 warp yarn, first quality, from	3.25–3.40
No. 40 warp yarn, second quality, from	3.10–3.20
No. 40 weft yarn, from	2.80–2.70
No. 50 warp yarn, first quality, from	4.30–4.40
No. 50 warp yarn, second quality, from	4.00–4.10
No. 50 weft yarn, from	3.60–3.70
No. 60 warp yarn, first quality, from	4.80–4.90
No. 60 warp yarn, second quality, from	4.40–4.60
No. 60 weft yarn, from	4.20–4.25
No. 70 warp yarn, from	5.90–6.00
No. 70 weft yarn, from	4.90–5.10
No. 80 warp yarn, from	6.90–7.00
No. 80 weft yarn, from	5.50–5.65
No. 90 warp yarn, from	8.00–8.50
No. 90 weft yarn, from	6.50–6.80
No. 100 warp yarn, from	8.80–9.50
No. 100 weft yarn, from	7.70–8.00

4. See reply to question No. 2.

5. The numbers of the warp-cops run from No. 16 to No. 36, principally of the last number, and of the year per one English pound package, as follows: Nos. 16 to 18, from 50 to 52 kreutzers; from No. 20 to No. 36, from 52 to 64 kreutzers. The numbers of the pin-cops run from No. 12 to No. 60, and the prices therefor from 46 to 78 kreutzers per English pound.

6. Into every variety and novelty of cotton textile fabric, but consisting in general very much of the same articles as in England and America, likewise, mixed with linen, wool, and silk.

7. In consulting with those most thoroughly acquainted with the trade, I have been informed that the character of cloth made here is similar to that in the United States; that the value of the samples would not justify the expense and labor of procuring them. As frequently the demand of novelty enhances the value of an article on this market, it might be better to originate than to copy a style. The quantity sold in any one year would depend very greatly on the state of the markets of the world, on fashion, and a great variety of causes.

8. The English yarns that reach this market are very uniform in regard to quality, and it appears that there are no manufacturers whose products are in special demand. The Wellington, Roland, and Gresham are "marks" well and favorably known, and generally sold upon our markets. The following firms in Manchester are given as the leading manufacturers of the yarns imported here, viz: Foss & Delius; G. Siebert & Co.; Goldschmidt, Hallow & Co.; H. Lesser; Schenck, Suchey & Co.; Hilderman Brothers & Co.; Schneider; Aders, Preyer & Co.

9. No, unless a small quantity of spool thread, which is sold specially for sewing-machines manufactured in America.

11. As yet no American commission merchants are engaged in the introduction of these yarns, but the firm of G. Cramer, Andreasgasse, No. 3, may be recommended as a suitable party to introduce and sell on this market the manufactured yarns of the United States, and with whom direct correspondence in regard thereto may be opened.

12. Both arrangements exist. The dealer who buys the goods is usu-

ally a speculator on the market, while where yarns are sold on commission, the English spinner takes the chances of the markets.

16. The duties paid on the importation of yarns into this empire are given in the table on the seventh page. These entry duties must be paid in gold, or in paper or silver at a discount of from 17 to 18 per cent. In regard to other charges, I beg to give the reply of a commission merchant to whom I applied for information: "They depend entirely on circumstances, and it would require a good-sized volume to do justice to all the items mentioned in seven lines" of the question.

18. Yes, but the quantities and numbers could not be ascertained with accuracy to be of any value.

19. The importations of cotton into this empire for 1878 were 60,000 tons; for 1879 they increased to 68,013 tons, and for the first six months of 1880 they reached 41,790 tons, nearly all of which was manufactured into yarns in this country. It has been suggested that as much the largest part of these yarns are of the coarser qualities, that probably the lower numbers of American-spun cotton yarns, by being shipped direct without the expense of middlemen, could successfully compete in prices, and certainly in quality, with the largest part or possibly the whole of these Austrian-spun yarns. Should the suggestion be found practicable, this would open up to our manufacturers a very important trade, as it will be observed that the annual importation of cotton into this country is over fivefold the quantity of cotton yarns imported. The susceptibilities of Austrian manufacturers, and the great opposition and outcry that would attend the investigation of this matter, by a consular officer, has prevented me from attempting to ascertain the details necessary to aid in determining the question, but these items could be procured by private parties with less probability of awaking such an opposition as might in the end prove fatal to the undertaking.

20. As was stated in the preliminary remarks, a large part of these importations come through Germany. To judge from the tabulated statement sent with the circular and the official Austrian reports, there were in 1878 probably about 3,000,000 pounds imported directly and 29,500,000 through Germany and Switzerland.

In concluding, I would state that from the investigation of this subject, confirmed by the opinion of those entitled to respect, I am convinced that in the trade of cotton yarns used in this country and now monopolized by the English spinners, the American people could successfully compete in the lower numbers, say to No. 36, or 40, which comprise probably about 40 per cent. of the total importation. But to succeed will require personal investigation and a serious effort on the part of those contemplating it.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL.
Vienna, September 21, 1880.

IMPORTATION OF COTTON YARN AND MANUFACTURES INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

SECOND REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, OF VIENNA.

Referring to my dispatch No. 68, under date of September 21, 1880, in reply to the cotton-yarn circular of March 19, I beg to inclose herewith the translation of a valuable supplementary report on the same subject, which, in accordance with my request, has been prepared by

the Kohn Brothers, of Kolin Gasse, No. 12, of this city. This report, accompanied by a complete set of samples forwarded under separate cover, will be found to contain much special information on the important question of the possibility of introducing American cotton yarns and textiles on this market, and I hope, therefore, that it may prove of value to those in the trade.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, March 19, 1881.

[Inclosure.]

Kohn Brothers to Consul-General Weaver.

SIR: We have the honor to submit a report, as detailed as possible, concerning the import of cotton yarns and dry goods into Austria-Hungary, with a special view to serve as a guide to American manufacturers of these articles.

We cannot, however, confine ourselves to the questions put to us concerning the year 1878, but must employ the data of 1880, because the new tariff coming into operation and the consequent abolition of the refining process, as well as other minor matters, which will be explained in the course of this statement, have given to imports an entirely different form.

To make the comparison, we here give the two tariffs:

Until January 1, 1880.

Cotton yarns, per 100 kilograms, raw, 8 florins; bleached, 12 florins; dyed, 26.50 florins.

COTTON GOODS.

Ordinary raw, 30 florins; all others, 40 florins; printed and with patterns, 30 florins, for 100 kilograms, in silver.

After January 1, 1880.

Cotton yarns, per 100 kilograms, in gold: Up to No. 12, single or double, 6 florins; up to No. 12, bleached and dyed, 10 florins; from No. 12 to No. 30, single or double, raw, 8 florins; bleached or dyed, 12 florins; above No. 30, single or double, raw, 12 florins; bleached or dyed, 16 florins; of three or more threads, raw, bleached, or dyed, 20 florins (formerly 18 florins, in silver).

COTTON GOODS.

Ordinary made, of yarn No. 50 or below (gray cotton), 32 florins; bleached or dyed, except red, 40 florins; different colors and Turkish red, 60 florins; over 38 threads to 5.10 square, raw, unbleached and undyed, 50 florins for 100 kilograms, in gold.

While, under the old tariff, yarns of all single numbers paid the same duty on entering Austria, the Austrian manufacturers were unable to produce the finer numbers, an over-production of the numbers up to 24 took place, and numerous factories were closed, while others failed, whereby the import of numbers 6 to 24 was at times rendered possible.

As seen from the above rates of tariff the duty on raw yarn, including No. 30, was raised to 8 florins, gold, for 100 kilograms, and this increase enables those manufacturers who are financially sound to enter into competition with foreign markets in the numbers up to 24, and almost to exclude them.

Furthermore, the increase of the duty from 8 florins, silver, to 12 florins, gold, on one hundred kilograms above No. 30, has given a stimulus to Austrian factories.

New factories were established, old ones enlarged, but in spite of all this the home factories cannot supply the demand in the finer numbers, especially in those mostly used, viz, Nos. 36 warp, and No. 42 pin cops.

There are times, however, though they but rarely occur, when in consequence of prosperous business in England the prices there offer no margins to the importer, which is soon equalized, however, either by the fall in the English or the rise in the home prices of yarns. At the time we write this, the English prices for yarn are very favorable for importation, and great transactions in yarns are being made.

In all, there are in operation in Austria above 30,000 power-looms and 10,000 hand-looms. The former use about 30 per cent. of the homespun yarns, consequently 70 per cent. must be covered by importation of foreign yarn, the total amount required therefor for the calico factories being about 70,000,000 pounds yarn, 50,000,000 of which, at least, must be imported, representing a value of about £2,000,000. These yarns reach us partly from Hamburg, Bremen, Stettin, the Dutch and Belgian ports, and, as far as the import of Swiss yarns is concerned, from Lindau, on the lake of Constance.

The origin of the yarns cannot be learned from the statistics published by the Austrian authorites, nor their qualities and numbers, and even the quantities cannot be seen from these official statements; they simply give an aggregate value for the year, and this calculation is quite arbitrary, giving no exact figures, because an average value, which is never given in the official statement, is taken as a basis, and as the tariff of the Austro-Hungarian customs officers is far below the market prices noted, the questions addressed to us concerning the quantity, quality, and grades of the different yarns imported cannot be properly answered.

Our former statements, however, are the result of careful investigations made by parties familiar with this branch of the cotton trade and are reliable.

We will now reply to the questions put to us in the order given.

1. The import of cotton yarns in 1880, according to official statements, amounted in round numbers to 22,000,000 florins, paper, which does not make us retract our previous statement respecting the average of about 50,000,000 pounds valued at £2,000,000 to be correct, of which the cotton yarns in packages amounted to £300,000.

2. Packed in bundles, single yarns are imported only in small quantities, that is to say but the very best qualities for Turkish red, dyed, Nos. 24 to 30. Double yarns, however, are largely imported in such packages.

3. In Nos. 30, 40, 60, two threads (mostly doubled and twisted), further in small quantities for the manufacture of half silk, laces, &c.; in No. 80 and 220 double, the trade mark Thakeray, Grün, Goldschild, are appreciated. These yarns are "gazirt" (spun into a fine, gauzelike thread). The prices for Nos. 30, 40, and 60 are respectively 10¼, 11½, and 14 pence per pound for the so-called Leipsic quality. In fine, gauzelike yarns, the importation of other brands than Thakeray is not likely to be made, since several attempts to import them by the conservative class of our manufacturers have failed, and we therefore do not furnish prices nor samples, since the trade-mark has a worldwide reputation.

4. As already mentioned under 1, the imports in cops amount to 50,000,000 pounds, valued at £2,000,000. The principal numbers imported are 36-warp cops and 42 pin cops; all others are of no significance. Yarns in cops are usually packed in barrels of 60 pounds net weight, but it was found that the cops were damaged by the pressure, and now they put an extra bottom into the center of the barrel to diminish the weight of pressure and preserve the points of the cops.

Switzerland packs her cops in cases of about 300 pounds net weight, the fine numbers in cases of 150 to 200 pounds net weight, or according to order. Here we might say that the packing in cases of 300 pounds recommends itself the most, and to make the cases in such a manner that each should not weigh more than 25 per cent. of the contents, with sufficient strength to bear the transport and to be used again. The weight of the case should not be more than 25 per cent., because in Austria the duty is assessed on the weight, and in cases and barrels 18 per cent. of the gross weight are deducted for tare from the amount to be paid.

5. No. 36 warp-cops, average price for 1880, 10¼ pence per English pound. No. 42 pin cops, average price for 1880, 10 pence per English pound.

6. No. 36 warp-cops from the warp, and No. 42 pin cops, the woof for gray cotton, shirting croisé, and all kinds of textiles for linings. The inclosed samples are of the kinds mostly in use:

Width in inches.	No. of threads to the square inch.	Number of yarn.	Wholesale price in kreuzers. per meter.
33	17 to 15	36-42	11⅛
33	19 to 17	36-42	13⅛
33	19 to 19	36-42	14⅛
34	21 to 21	36-42	17½
33	Copper, 19 to 17	36-30	17½
34	19 to 18	36-42	14
34	24 to 24	36-42	23

7. These textiles are bleached, dyed, and printed, and then put on the market, being mostly 33 Vienna inches wide, or for inferior kinds 32 and 32½ inches. For the refining process, however, only the best quality, like sample No. 4, 34 inches wide, is made.

The "refining process" means this: Until two years ago it was permitted in Austria to send woven cottons abroad to be refined; that is to say, to be bleached, dyed, and printed, and then these goods could re-enter Austria free of duty. In reality this proceeding has been abolished, but a temporary period of transition was stipulated, expiring in June, 1881, when such bleached, dyed, and printed goods must pay the full duty on entering Austria-Hungary. Articles of limited consumption may be seen from the accompanying collection, as well as cottons 3 Vienna ells wide for the manufacture of shawls.

8. The numbers mostly imported are 36 warp and 42 pin cops in different qualities. From England come usually only middling qualities such as Wellington, Gresham, Rowland, Shamyl, &c., in 36 warp-cops, and Wellington, Reymer, Mellor, Indian mill, &c., in No. 42 pin-cops. The English business houses have besides certain letters for their trade-marks, such as E. X. L., which give no indication as to the name of the manufacturer. When judging yarn, it is not only necessary to consider its equality and purity, but those brands are most readily bought which practice has shown to be correctly and reliably numbered; for instance, when 42 pin-cops is marked a certain number, that the yarn really has that number and not less. Superior qualities of Nos. 36–42 are imported from Switzerland; the names of some of the firms are given further on. In fine yarns No. 60 to 140, Switzerland is cheaper than England and produces them in a better manner; the numbering of the Swiss yarns is also more reliable than that of the English yarns.

9. This question it is impossible to answer.

10. English commission houses, or such working after English or American principles, do not exist here. Business is done as explained in the following answer.

11. Business in yarns is transacted by agents who, for account of English commission houses, effect sales by samples and permanent show-rooms with the spinners. The yarns are always sent on order, and not in consignment. "Permanent show-rooms" means that a certain quantity is deposited for one to three days or until recalled. The names of the principal English commission houses engaged in trade with Austria-Hungary are as follows: Jacob Behrens, E. M. Hoehr & Co., Aders Pryer & Co., E. Liebert & Co., Vöss & Delius, Hilberman Bros., H. Lig. Strauss Bros., all of Manchester, the latter especially in doubles. Their conditions are: To the price of yarn is added cost of packing, freight to Hull (for 1,200-pound bales £2, for 600-pound barrels £1 15*s.*), 2 per cent. commission and discount in case payment is made forty-five days after date of invoice, 1 per cent. in case three months' credit is granted. Half-yearly accounts-current are kept with their customers, with a yearly interest of 5 per cent. In Switzerland the spinneries import directly, and are likewise represented by agents; their names are, T. G. Schmidt, Heinrich Kunz, Zurich; spinnery, Cheer; spinnery, Bremgarten, and others. Their conditions are: Packing, sometimes free of charge and sometimes 1½ centimes per pound. Payment to be made four weeks after date of invoice, or 4 per cent. discount when cash.

13. Samples of gray cotton, mentioned under 6. Principal articles for the import, to be shipped to the Levant, are: Threaded warp, 14 to 14, 14 to 15, 16 to 16, 17 to 16, 17 to 17, 18 to 17 pin cops, in three widths, 32, 33, and 34 inches wide. The yarns for these are mostly 36–42, but sometimes 38–44 and 40–44 are desired. The length of the pieces is 120 meters. The import of cotton textiles into Austria for the purpose of home consumption is almost entirely excluded by the high tariff. The import of gray cottons, however, for those who export to the Orient is possible, because they are exempt from entry duty on certain conditions; the imported prices are marked and must be printed and ready for export within a certain fixed time. Only in this article can anything be made in gray cotton.

14. We inclose samples in full width of bleached cotton. The kinds most in demand are marked with a cross. The figures refer to mild shirting with a stiff finish.

No. 3 $13\frac{3}{10}$	No. 4 $14\frac{1}{10}$	× No. 6 $14\frac{6}{10}$	No. 7 $14\frac{6}{10}$	× No. 20 $14\frac{8}{10}$		
× No. 22 $17\frac{6}{10}$	No. 24 20	No. 25 $22\frac{1}{2}$	No. 26 $23\frac{3}{10}$	No. 28 $26\frac{1}{2}$		
× D. $28\frac{6}{10}$	H. $27\frac{1}{10}$	× E. $24\frac{6}{10}$	F. $25\frac{1}{2}$	R[11] $30\frac{1}{10}$	R. $29\frac{8}{10}$	S. $34\frac{6}{10}$

These are wholesale prices per meter.

We inclose besides a collection of different textiles showing various other articles made and consumed in Austria. On account of the high tariff, the import of printed or bleached cottons, least of all of cotton goods, with patterns, can never be thought of, especially since the last-named pay a still higher duty.

15. The import of dyed or printed cottons is absolutely impossible on account of the duty, and therefore no samples are furnished.

16. It is impossible to approximate the probable expenses, but it is certain that the American spinner would not be worse situated than the Eng.ish commission merchant. Freight and steamer from New York to Hamburg is but a trifle higher than from Manchester to America, likewise transport, duty, provisions, &c.; in short, all other expenses are the same, and since England and Switzerland successfully import into Austria, there can be no doubt that American yarns could find a market here. Moreover, as the English spinners mix with the finer brands (36–44) some inferior cotton (East India), the American yarns would at the same time find ready buyers, because there would be an assurance that they contain no other but American cotton, which will become evident whan manufactured into cloth.

17. Most of the spinneries are in the northeastern part of Bohemia, a few in the western part, and some in Lower Austria. Hand-looms are in Moravia and Bohemia. Double yarns are used for the manufacture of half-wool, half-silk, and cloth in Ash, in Northern Bohemia; for ordinary woolen goods, such as "President" beaver and pilot cloth, in Brünn, as lower seam in fancy woolens in Brünn and Bielitz, and finally for half-silks in Vienna.

18. The manufacture of cords, ropes, &c., is unimportant here. Knitting-yarn is made on a grand scale by the Pottendorfer Spinnfabrik; their trade-mark is well liked here; the duty at the same time is so high that importation of knitting-yarn cannot be thought of. Other factories of thread use yarn made especially for that purpose, but the demand is small.

19 to 22. Recapitulation. For importation the numbers 36 to 44 warp and pin cops are best. In bundle yarns, Nos. 30–60 double. In textiles those marked 13; however, unbleached only. To import into Austria-Hungary with profit, it is recommended that the importer follow the custom of the English and Swiss houses, as far as the making out of the invoices is concerned. All sales can be made for cash, payable on receipt of goods. It is absolutely unnecessary to sell on credit, since, as has been shown, all settlements could be made within thirty days, or in forty-five days, when the time consumed in the transit to America is taken into consideration. We must protest, however, against the custom prevailing in America of having a bank credit for the trade with foreign countries. This proceeding may be proper when raw or half manufactured products are imported from America, but when yarns or textiles are concerned, then the American exporter must accommodate himself to the conditions granted by the English and Swiss business houses. We also consider it as very advantageous to the business transactions between Austria and America if the government or their representatives would cause the American rates of exchange to be quoted in the official exchange paper, in order to save the commission of the English and German bankers, as well as the double calculation necessary in all matters pertaining to the import and export between Austria-Hungary and America, and that in return the New York exchange should quote Vienna rates of exchange.

Yours, &c.,

KOHN BROTHERS.

VIENNA, *February* 17, 1881.

THE COTTON TRADE OF TRIESTE.

REPORT BY CONSUL THAYER.

I had the honor in my No. 363 to report, among the papers awaiting me on my return from the United States, the circular of the Department of State relating to cotton fabrics and yarns.

The information required for answers to the questions transmitted with circular cannot be obtained here; and if it could be, it would be useless so far as opening a market for American cotton is concerned, as will appear below.

Trieste being a free port, its chamber of commerce is the only source of supply for commercial statistics; but its records give nothing beyond aggregates of quantities received by sea and land, without distinctions of sorts, qualities, prices, or places of production, save that, in arrivals by sea, we are informed whence shipped. From this source it appears that in 1878 the quantity of British cotton yarns imported by sea was 12,618 metrical quintals; and this is probably a reasonably correct answer to question No. 1.

In 1878 some very small portion of these yarns was used in weaving by hand-looms in Istria (now these looms are supplied exclusively by Austrian yarns), but otherwise the only use made of them in this consular district was for knitting.

A gentleman whom I have long known here is the principal Manchester agent. He informs me that the extension of the Austrian cotton laws over Istria, Dalmatia, and Bosnia has destroyed his business; for those markets are now cut off from English trade; while his former trade with Greece and the Ionian islands was long since ruined by the direct steam communication between British and Grecian ports.

I can do no better than quote from a communication in writing by him to me, which contains the substance of his statments made in conversation. He writes:

My remarks referred particularly to merchants, who, in my opinion, would certainly not answer the questions sent to you by your government. No merchant will tell you from whom he buys, nor to whom he sells, and, still less, what his profits are, but all this would be known and published if many of the questions are answered. To a certain extent I could answer some of the questions, as agent and representative of English houses for the sale of manufactures and yarns. I of course know a good deal about the trade; but I must tell you candidly I think it would be a loss of time and labor, for the following reasons:

1st. *Statistics of imports.*—As you are no doubt aware, the Austrian Government extended the high protective tariff to the provinces hitherto free, or nearly so, namely, Istria, Dalmatia, Bosnia, &c., leaving open only two free ports, Trieste and Fiume, which will also be abolished in about twelve months. The consequence is, that the imports from England and other countries have fallen off tremendously this year, and consequently the statistics referring to preceding years would be of no use whatever as a guide to the state of trade now.

2d. *Yarns.*—This country has made great progress lately in spinning, and now being protected by high duties English yarns are being shut out in great measure. There are a few qualities still coming from Manchester, but the quantity is so small that it would not be worth while for any one in the United States to take it up.

3d. *Goods.*—Gray cloth, which nearly all came from Manchester up to the end of last year, is almost shut out, the duty being about 30 per cent. to 40 per cent. on the value!

These remarks apply to various other kinds of goods, and from all this you will see that the questions in said document have come at a very critical period, and just as a sort of revolutionary change is taking place in the trade of this town.

I should be very glad to open a trade with the United States, and in fact am searching for connections there in other branches; but as for cotton fabrics and yarns, I do not see any chance of doing a trade here (in them), now that they have introduced (as in America) protection to native industry.

Whoever has read my late communication upon the prospects of commerce in Trieste, will have been prepared for the views thus expressed by this expert.

How correctly this gentleman has judged of the view which the local merchants would take of this matter will be seen in the following extract from one of the letters received at the consulate from them. This letter, signed by six of the leading firms in the cotton trade, calls attention to the following facts:

1. Much of the information requested is such as we have acquired by long experience and observation, and is in fact a real and valuable portion of our "stock in trade"; it is of such a nature that it is not even imparted to our local chamber of commerce; much less are we disposed to impart it to the public generally.

2. Those of us who do business with English manufacturers, and have as yet no cause of complaint against them, doubt the honor and propriety of our publishing to the world facts and statistics that might eventually be used to their disadvantage.

3. The honorable consulate must be aware of the time and labor that would necessarily be required in the work of preparing any adequate reply to the queries in question and which we cannot be expected to willingly expend.

4. Our national industry is now encouraged by a judicious protective tariff, which is soon to be extended over this port. If such an extensive collection of samples as is contemplated be made in the interest of and for the advantage of the American manufac-

turer, it seems to us that that interest and advantage would be gained at the expense of our own.

5. As merchants, if it can be made clear that we might, with commercial advantage, form connections with American manufacturers and exporting houses there would be the natural inducement to do so; but we venture to think that the obvious and proper course would be for them to forward to us all the information (with collection of samples) upon their merchandise which we are now requested to afford them upon ours.

Upon these and like grounds we feel compelled to return to the honorable consulate the list of questions without replies.

There having been no possible means of obtaining the information desired except by personal application to the agents and merchants in the cotton business, such application was made, with the results indicated above.

I have but to add that England must soon find a formidable competitor for the cotton trade of the Orient in Austria; and, in all probability, in the provinces which lie adjacent to or not distant from Trieste and Fiume. Through these provinces flow the Isongo, the Save, and the Drave, rivers that afford an inexhaustible and never-failing water-power supplied by Alpine snows. Hitherto this power has mostly run to waste; but the new protective tariff—the permanence of which does not depend upon the, results of quadrennial elections—acts already as a stimulus to enterprise in this direction. Under its fostering care, a small cotton-mill on the Isongo, near Gorijia, is now developing into a great manufactory.

Several years ago I had occasion to mention in this correspondence a project for damming the Save and Drave, for the purposes both of slack-water navigation and the utilization of the now wasted power. I venture to predict that—if Austria shall now enjoy twenty years of peace—what with her regular steam communications with Egypt and India, her cheap labor, her abundant capital, and her awakened enterprise relieved from the foolish restrictions so long imposed by now exploded false notions of national economy—the next generation will again see American cargoes of cotton unloading at the wharves of Trieste and Fiume, and Austrian fabrics finding place in the great markets of the world.

Whether, under any circumstances, the American manufacturer will ever be able to introduce his products into the markets of this country against duties of 30 to 40 per cent., I very strongly doubt; that he never can, so long as he has no direct steam communication with the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, is too clear to need argument.

ALEXANDER W. THAYER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Trieste, October 30, 1880.

IMPORTATION OF COTTON MANUFACTURES INTO TURKEY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL HEAP, OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

I have the honor to inclose a report on the importation of cotton manufactures, and more particularly of cotton yarns, cloths, &c., in the Turkish Empire.

This report is made in obedience to the circular from the Department of State, dated the 19th of March last and received by me the 23d of May, to which is subjoined a copy of a series of questions on the subject of the cotton trade of this country.

The very defective and confused manner of keeping the records of the custom-houses in Constantinople as well as in the other ports of

the Empire renders any information derived from that source either quite useless or very unreliable.

The tabulated statements give in a condensed form, easy of reference, a good deal of useful information. The samples are numerous and well arranged for comparison. I send the favorite trade-marks, which were copied from the goods, as they could not be obtained otherwise than by the purchase of the entire piece.

As the package of samples is too bulky and heavy to send by mail, I have shipped it by express, carefully boxed, directed to the Department of State. A duplicate of this report is inclosed in the case.

G. H. HEAP,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Constantinople, August 24, 1880.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN CIRCULAR.

No. 1.

Cotton yarns imported in 1879.	Pounds.
Constantinople	8,000,000
Smyrna	5,500,000
Beyrout	4,500,000
Salonica	4,000,000
Other ports	7,000,000
Total	29,000,000

In consequence of the disorder which prevails in Turkish custom-houses, these figures are only approximate. The amount given as the importation of "other ports" is an estimate based on the number of the population drawing supplies from ports of a secondary order which have direct commercial relations with England.

	Pounds.
Of these yarns, England furnishes (all qualities)	24,000,000
Germany, Austria, France and Italy (dyed)	3,500,000
Greece, (gray, No. 4 to 14)	1,500,000
Total	29,000,000

No. 2. Most of these yarns come in skeins put up in bundles of 10 pounds each, making bales of 120 bundles, weighing 1,200 pounds. They come also in half bundles of 5 pounds each, but in this case the bales contain 240 bundles, and weigh 1,200 pounds. See the table annexed for the weight of the skeins, which varies according to the number of threads.

No. 3.

Cotton yarns imported into Turkey in 1879.	Pounds.
Throstle twist (XX extra)	15,000,000
Water twist	5,000,000
Bleached	4,500,000
Dyed	4,500,000
Total	29,000,000

For prices, see tabular statement.

No. 4. A portion of the yarns imported from Germany, Austria, and Italy, come in cases containing 60 bundles of 10 pounds each, or 120 bundles of 5 pounds, weighing, in either case, 600 pounds.

No. 5. See tabular statement.

No. 6. These yarns are used to make materials for shirts, dresses, tur-

bans, belts and sashes, handkerchiefs, towels and cloths of different sizes or the peasants. All these stuffs are made with hand-looms. The daily wages of a weaver are from 4 to 8 cents, a price which prevents competition by machinery.

No. 7. As these stuffs are only sold in the piece, the expense of procuring samples as directed is not justified.

No. 8. They vary according to the manufactory; some of the favorite marks are furnished.

No. 9. No cotton yarns are imported from the United States.

No. 10. James Whittall & Co. are the only exclusive importers of cotton goods of British manufacture. There are numerous importers of other nationalities.

No. 12. They are both consigned to commission merchants to be sold on English account, and purchased in England and owned by the parties selling them here.

No. 13. See tabular statement.

No. 14. See tabular statement.

No. 15. See tabular statement.

No. 16. English goods are sold for cash at 5 per cent. discount, or at 45 days at 3 per cent. discount. At retail everything is sold for cash. Freight from New York to Constantinople, by British steamer, is £2 per cubic meter. Insurance varies from ¼ to ⅜ per cent. Interest here is 12 per cent., although in commercial practice the reciprocal rate is from 5 to 6 per cent. Banking houses allow on deposits, in account current, interest at the rate of 3 to 4 per cent. per annum.

Custom-house dues are 8 per cent., ad valorem, on imports, and 1 per cent. on exports. A tariff has been printed in conformity with treaties of commerce. Commissions vary very much according to the nature and importance of the transactions. Improper rates are frequently charged.

As regards cotton goods, the consignee agents are satisfied with 2½ per cent., the consignor paying all charges, which are approximately as follows on a stock of $10,000:

Storage, one year	$200 00
Insurance against fire, ¼ per cent	50 00
Storekeeper	480 00
Two porters	240 00
Total	970 00

To avoid these details, which are frequently embarrassing, it is preferable to come to an understanding upon a rate of commission which will include all charges.

No, 17. In European Turkey, viz, Macedonia, Thracia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Albania. These are also supplied at Salonica by the railroad from that city to Mitrovitza; and as the construction of railroads in Bosnia is difficult on account of the mountainous character of the country, this state of things will probably last some time.

For Asia Minor, Smyrna is the point of supply. The transit to Persia is in great part from Trebizonde, which depends commercially on Constantinople. Beyrout and Alexandretta supply Aleppo and Syria generally.

Constantinople is the great entrepot of the East, and it is to this point that orders and consignments are sent. It is essentially the New York of the East.

No. 18. There are none.

No. 19. I may state that a spinning mill was established at Salonica last year, with 6,000 spindles, making, as well as the Greek spinning

mills, Nos. 4 to 14 "Water" and "Hard" (see tabular statement). A similar factory existed in Smyrna, but was burnt.

No. 20. The articles mentioned in these inquiries are imported direct to Constantinople and the other principal ports of the empire in English, Italian, French, and Austrian steamers.

No. 21. See the tabular statement annexed.

No. 22. American cotton cloths, blue drillings, and cabot cloths are preferred at equal prices to English cloths of the same kind.

G. H. HEAP,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Constantinople, August 24, 1880.

SAMPLES OF COTTON YARNS WITH FOREGOING REPORT.

Denomination.	Number of samples.	Number of yarn.	Number of skeins in one bundle.	Price per pound (wholesale).
I. ENGLAND.				*Cents.*
Water	1	4	20	28
Do	2	6	12	28
Do	3	8	16	28
Do	4	10	20	28
Do	5	12	24	19
Do	6	12	24	17
Do	7	12	24	16
Do	8	12	24	28
Do	9	14	28	28
II. ENGLAND.				
Water	10	16	32	28
Do	11	18	36	24
Do	12	18	36	28
Do	13	20	20	34
Do	14	20	20	23
Do	15	20	20	22
Do	16	20	20	21
Do	17	22	22	34
Do	18	24	24	34
Do	19	28	28	29
Do	20	30	30	29
Do	21	32	32	29
III. ENGLAND.				
Hard	22	8	16	34
Do	23	10	18	34
Do	24	12	24	20
Do	25	12	24	34
Do	26	12	24	12
Do	27	12	24	24
Do	28	14	28	34
Do	29	16	32	34
Do	30	18	36	34
Do	31	20	40	22
Do	32	20	40	42
IV. ENGLAND.				
Hard	33	20	40	26
Do	34	20	40	42
Do	35	24	48	22
Do	36	24	48	24
Do	37	24	48	42
Do	38	28	56	38
Do	39	30	60	29
Do	40	30	60	38
Do	41	30	60	36
Do	42	30	60	48
Do	43	32	64	46
Do	44	40	80	36
V. GREECE.				
Water	45	8	16	15½
Hard	46	8	16	16
Do	47	14	28	16½
Water (Turkey)	48	14	28	15½
Do	49	12	24	15½
Do	50	8	16	15½
Do	51	4	20	15½
Hard	52	14	28	16
Do	53	6	12	16
Do	54	4	20	16
VI. ENGLAND.				
Stocking thread	55	8	16	34
Do	56	10	20	34
Do	57	12	24	34
Do	58	14	28	34
Do	59	16	32	34
Crochet cottons	60	6	20	32
Do	61	8	20	32
Do	62	10	20	32
Do	63	12	20	32
Do	64	14	20	32
Do	65	16	20	32
VII. ENGLAND.				
Sewing cords	65½	16	40	32
Do	66	18	80	32
Do	67	20	40	32
Do	68	22	40	32
Do	69	30	40	32
Do	70	36	40	32
Do	71	16	40	30
Do	72	24	40	30
Do	73	36	40	30
Do	74	32	40	30
VIII. ENGLAND.				
Red	75	6	20	35
Do	76	8	20	35
Do	77	10	20	35
Do	78	12	20	35
Do	79	14	20	35
Do	80	20	40	40
Blue	81	6	20	32
Do	82	8	20	32
Do	83	10	20	32
Do	84	14	20	32
Colors, divers	85–88	.....	20	.....

SAMPLES OF COTTON GOODS WITH FOREGOING REPORT.

Number of sample card.	Denomination and country of production.	Number of sample.	Number of pieces in bale.	Length of piece in yards.	Breadth of piece in inches.	Wholesale prices.		
						Per piece.	Per yard.	Per pound.
							Cents.	*Cents.*
IX.	Long cloths, England	1	100	36	51½	$2 52	.....	.....
	Do	2	200	36	23	2 27	.....	.....
	Do	3	100	36	39	2 11	.....	.....
	Do	4	150	24	38	2 01	.....	.....
	Do	5	200	24	34	1 92	.....	.....
	Do	6	150	24	31½	1 90	.....	.....
	Do	7	150	24	31½	1 72	.....	.....
	Do	8	150	24	31½	1 68	.....	.....
	Do	9	150	24	26½	1 23	.....	.....
	Do	10	150	24	23	1 19	.....	.....
	Do	11	150	24	25	1 10	.....	.....
	Do	12	200	20	21	86	.....	.....
	Do	13	250	20	22	75	.....	.....
	Do	14	150	24	32	75	.....	.....
	Do	15	300	18	17	75	.....	.....
	Do	16	300	16	17	47	.....	.....
	Do	17	300	16	17	39	.....	.....
	Do	18	150	24	31	.....	.....	25
	Do	19	300	24	40½	.....	.....	24
	Do	20	150	23	26½	.....	.....	23
	Bleached cloths, England	21	150	35	32	1 41	.....	.....
	Do	22	100	40	27	3 17	.....	.....
	Blue drillings, England	23	100	32	24	.....	07	.....
	Do	24	60	60	26½	.....	16	.....
	Do	25	60	60	25½	.....	07½	.....
	Long cloth, United States	26	125	40	36	.....	10	.....
	Do	27	200	40	30	.....	09½	.....
	Do	28	200	40	35	.....	09	.....
	Do	29	80	40	35	.....	07	.....
	Blue drilling, United States	30	*	40	28½	.....	12	.....
	Long cloths, Greece	31	.....	24	31½	2 21	.....	.....
	Do	32	.....	24	30	2 00	.....	.....
	Do	33	.....	24	30	2 21	.....	.....
	Do	34	.....	24	32	2 31	.....	.....
	Do	35	.....	24	31½	2 36	.....	.....
	Do	36	.....	24	31½	2 40	.....	.....
	Do	37	.....	24	31½	2 46	.....	.....
X.	Do	38	.....	24	32	2 50	.....	.....
	Madoppolams, England	39	80	40	33	3 50	.....	.....
	Do	40	100	40	32½	3 01	.....	.....
	Do	41	100	40	32½	2 68	.....	.....
	Do	42	100	40	31½	2 66	.....	.....
	Do	43	100	40	32	2 48	.....	.....
	Do	44	100	40	29	2 00	.....	.....
	Do	45	100	40	30	1 47	.....	.....
	Do	46	100	40	31½	1 97	.....	.....
	Dyed calicoes, England	47	100	32	31½	1 23	.....	.....
	Do	48	125	32	29	.....	10	.....
	Do	49	150	32	26½	.....	06	.....
	Do	50	150	32	28	.....	06	.....
	Do	51	125	32	28	.....	08	.....
	Do	52	125	32	28	.....	10	.....
	Do	53	150	32	28	.....	07½	.....
	Do	54	125	32	28	.....	06	.....
XI.	Bed tickings	55	50	48	42½	.....	12½	.....
	Muslins, England	56	250	20	26½	.....	65½	.....
	Do	57	200	20	45½	1 35	.....	.....
	Do	58	200	20	38½	88	.....	.....
	Do	59	250	20	27	57	.....	.....
	Do	60	200	20	27	55	.....	.....
	Do	61	200	20	36	67½	.....	.....
	Do	62	200	20	44	88	.....	.....
	Do	63	200	20	31	61½	.....	.....

* In case of 25 pieces.

DIMENSIONS AND PRICES.

Description.	Number of samples.	Dimensions.	Wholesale price per dozen.
		Inches.	*Cents.*
Handkerchiefs, England	64	16 by 16	20
Handkerchiefs, Switzerland	65	22 by 22	28½
Do	66	26 by 26	49
Do	67	30 by 30	69

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF GREECE.

REPORT BY CONSUL HANCOCK, OF PATRAS.

Within the last few years Greece has made considerable progress in all descriptions of manufactures; not the least among which is that of cotton twist. Twenty years since there was hardly what could be called a mill throughout the whole country; now there is about a score, the chief being at the Piræus, Livadia, Syra, and Patras, which sum up to about 80,000 spindles, which not only provide for the consumption of the country, but also for export to Turkey (Volo, Salonica, Smyrna, &c.); consequently the importation of this article has very considerably decreased. Previous to 1860 the importation of cotton twist into Patras was annually to the value of about 1,000,000 drachmas ($172,414); in 1861 it declined to about 620,000 drachmas ($106,897); in 1863 to about 382,000 drachmas ($65,862); in 1864 to about 370,000 drachmas ($63,793); and in 1877 to about 150,000 drachmas ($25,862). Now scarcely any gray twist is imported, only some dyed and bleached; but in proportion as the manufacture of these descriptions improves in the country the importation will decrease, and probably ere very long will altogether cease.

The importation of cotton stuffs is of more importance. Of these the principal articles are gray cotton cloth (T cloth); bleached cotton (T cloth); white shirtings (used here with a very hard and heavy finish); linings (in different quantities and colors); cotton drills; prints. Of these articles the imports to Patras amount to about the value of 2,500,000 drachmas ($431,035) annually, and have been about this figure for some years.

Taking now the questions in the order they are given:

1. It is almost impossible to ascertain with precision the proportion of the yarn imported at this port, but roughly, about a quarter of the total import must be received here, and also about the same proportion of the other cotton stuffs.

2. All yarns that come here are in bundles of 10 pounds.

3. The chief consumption is of Nos. 4 to 14, little being used from Nos. 16 to 40. The prices, duty paid, were as follows: No. 4, 13 drachmas ($2.24); No. 6, 13.50 drachmas ($2.33); No. 8, 14 drachmas ($2.41); No. 10, 14.50 drachmas ($2.50); No. 12, 15 drachmas ($2.59); No. 14, 15.15 drachmas ($2.67); No. 16–24, 18 drachmas ($3.10); No. 26–32, 20 drachmas ($3.45) per bundle of 10 pounds.

4. No yarn is imported here in pin cops.

5. No yarn being imported here in pin cops there is no price to quote.

6. The yarns are almost exclusively used for gray cotton cloth, which is made by the villagers with hand-looms.

7. See samples for description of cloth made; have found it impossible to ascertain even approximately the annual salable quantities.

8. As previously stated, but few English yarns are now used; these are all extra hard twisted for warp. The firms of Higgings and Crampton, of Manchester, are those best known here as spinners.

9. Have not been able to trace that any yarns have ever been imported from the United States.

10. There is no English house here that receives and sells these yarns; the firm of Barff & Co. occasionally sends orders to Manchester on commission from Greek firms.

11. There are no American commission merchants here. The firms that are most advantageously located to introduce and sell yarns and cloth manufactured in the United States would be the above-mentioned firm of Barff & Co. (English), and Fels & Co. (German).

12. The goods are all purchased in England, and owned by the parties selling them.

13 to 15. See list of samples.

16. The charges from England to this, including commission, freight, insurance, &c., amount to about 12 per cent. The import and municipal dues are very heavy, varying from 12 to 30 per cent. according to the articles.

17. The principal markets for yarn are Syra, Corfu, Piraeus, and Patras. As regards the numbers best adapted, see answer No. 3.

18. None of the yarns are used for the manufacture of rope, lines, cords, twines, &c.

19. The only remark I have to make is, that the cotton goods brought here have all a very heavy dressing, and this seems to be more strange as the duty is payable on the weight. It has been pointed out to the trade that there would be considerable saving were the goods to come without any dressing, but such is the force of custom that they refuse to make the trial.

20. The articles named are imported here direct from the place of production.

21. See list of samples.

22. During my investigation to procure the foregoing information, I have not come across any styles of goods that have been pointed out to me as novelties in the market; therefore have no samples of this description to send.

E. HANCOCK,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Patras, June 30, 1880.

LIST OF SAMPLES REFERRED TO IN FOREGOING DISPATCH.

No. 1. Gray cotton cloth made in the country with hand-looms, from yarn also made in the country; both warp and weft being of extra hard twist, the cloth is rough; width, 20 inches; price, 30 drachmas per pique, equal to about .0706 cent per yard.

No. 2. Colored cotton cloth made in the country with hand-looms. Width, 16 inches; price, 30 drachmas per pique, equal to about .0706 cent per yard.

No. 3. English gray T cloth, 32 inches, 24 yards, 7½ pounds; price, in England, 7*s.*; here, 15 drachmas ($2.59) per piece. The following are also greatly used: 32 inches, 24 yards, 6½ pounds; price in England, 6*s.* 3*d.*; here, 13 drachmas ($2.24) per piece. 25 inches, 24 yards, 5½ pounds; price in England, 5*s.*; here, 11 drachmas ($1.90) per piece.

No. 4. English white T cloth, 29 inches, 24 yards, 6½ pounds; price in England, 6*s.* 6*d.*; here, 14 drachmas ($2.41) per piece.

No. 5. English plain dyed silesias, 24 yards, 32 inches; price in England, 5*s.*; here, 11 drachmas ($1.90) per piece.

No. 6. English bleached sheetings (very hard and heavy finished), 32 inches, 40 yards, 12 pounds (in gray 9 pounds), 12*s.*, 30 drachmas ($5.17) per piece.

No. 7. Greek gray extra hard water twist No. 6, 13.50 drachmas ($2.33) per bundle.

No. 8. Greek gray water twist No. 6, 13.50 drachmas ($2.33) per bundle.

No. 9. English bleached water twist No. 10, 14.50 drachmas ($2.50) per bundle.

No. 10. English gray extra hard water twist No. 30, 20 drachmas ($3.45) per bundle.

No. 11. English dye blue (indigo) water twist No., 12, 15.15 drachmas ($2.67) per bundle.

SUPPLEMENT.

SUPPLEMENT.

ADULTERATED OR PURE COTTON GOODS FOR CHINA: WHICH?

As this is a question of the utmost importance to American manufacturers, everything available from consular sources bearing upon the subject is herewith given—first the opinions of the American and next the opinions of the British consuls.

As introductory to these consular opinions, the following extract from the letter of the Secretary of State, transmitting to Congress the report upon the commercial relations of the United States with foreign countries for the year 1879, is singularly appropriate:

From 1861 to 1866, while the United States was engaged in suppressing the civil war, Great Britain had a total monopoly of the cotton-goods trade of China. Owing to the scarcity of the raw material, and to that recklessness of future consequences which is characteristic of monopoly, and, as has been plausibly stated, to meet the wants of the Chinese markets, British manufacturers began to manufacture special grades of goods for that country—goods into whose composition the deteriorating principle of *sizing* entered to a large extent. This class of goods returned immense profits, and this was doubtless the prime motive for their manufacture, for profit is the motive which directs and controls all commerce. While British manufacturers had no competitors in the Chinese markets, the native protests against these "sized" and "mildewed" cottons were unavailing. It was only when the United States, having recovered from the effects of internal war, sought the Chinese markets once more to win back our lost trade—for we have not yet attained that position therein which we occupied prior to 1861—that British merchants in China, and the British press in China and in England, sounded the note of alarm in regard to these goods.

It is thought that the "claying" of British goods for the Chinese markets has been somewhat modified, but the latest phase of the question is the assertion, boldly made by British consuls and British merchants in China, and seemingly sustained by the continued demand therefor, that the Chinese people are thoroughly aware of the character and inferior quality of British sized goods, but that their cheapness makes them a necessity, and that on account of that cheapness they are preferred to the superior but higher-priced American cottons. British consuls and merchants further assert that until the American manufacturers depreciate the quality of their goods—size them—to such a degree as will enable them to compete in price with British goods, we cannot hope to increase our trade to such an extent as to endanger the vast cotton-goods trade of England with China.

With the exception of the report from Consul-General Bailey, wherein the British view of this question is argued at length (although the consul-general does not advance the argument as his own, but gives the views of British merchants in China who are supposed to understand the wants and peculiarities of the Chinese), our consular reports are unanimously opposed to any deterioration in the quality of American cottons, although they all appreciate the advantages which would result from cheaper goods in competition with British manufactures.

This is a question of such grave import that it is to be earnestly hoped that the American manufacturers will not be seduced, by any expectations of immediate profit or transient popularity in any market, to surrender the established character which their goods have attained.

The consular views on the question of pure and impure cotton goods for China appropriately begin with a very interesting report upon the sizing of British goods, written in December, 1873, by Consul Sheppard of Tien-Tsin, followed by subsequent consular opinions, bringing the subject down to the present time.

BRITISH SIZED GOODS IN CHINA.

TIEN-TSIN, *December* 31, 1873.

The time has now arrived when our government should be fully informed regarding a subject intimately related to the material prosperity of the United States, namely, trade with China in manufactured cotton goods. The share which was, and should again be, taken by our country in this trade is a question so important in all its bearings, and fraught with such benefits to our commercial and marine interests, that it cannot but commend itself to the serious consideration of our government and the earnest attention of American manufacturers. The main issue of the question is simply this: Shall England or the United States possess the advantage of supplying this at present large but prospectively immense market in China with cotton fabrics?

In my commercial report for the year 1873 it was shown that the total value of cotton fabrics imported to China in the year 1872, from England, Holland, and the United States, exceeded $40,000,000, and that the share of the United States in this trade was but trifling.

Although the raw material used in manufacturing these fabrics, consumed by China, is chiefly produced in the United States, yet American cotton must now pass through the looms of England and Holland before it can find a market in China. The superior quality of American cotton is well known to Chinese traders. Our cotton goods, by reason of their cheapness before the war, supplied the China markets to the exclusion of all others, and created a demand that, since our war, has steadily increased to its present imposing magnitude. The superiority of our cotton still remains an enduring advantage possessed by American fabrics over all others; but this important advantage is now almost entirely neutralized by their high cost, as compared with those others.

One material advantage reaped, and still enjoyed by England, from the civil war in the United States, was the monopoly of supplying China with manufactured cotton goods. Cheap labor was unquestionably the cause of this; but after the monopoly of this trade had been fully secured to England as a consequence of our war, English manufacturers did not rest satisfied with the single advantage sustaining their monopoly—cheap labor—but resorted to counterfeiting American trade-marks that had become popular among the Chinese. The end in view was duly attained by successfully palming off inferior English cotton fabrics upon unsuspecting native merchants, as American manufactures, and thus our share in this trade was still further effectually reduced to its present insignificant proportions. As might be expected, deception was not confined to counterfeiting trade-marks and the names of American mills; a wider field was opened for its practice, and the system of over-sizing or weighting the cotton goods with worthless substances, such as clay, &c., was commenced by English manufacturers shortly after our war, and has since developed into what it is at present—a gigantic fraud.

SIZING.

By this practice, cotton goods which are sold by the piece, weighing a certain number of pounds, are so prepared by manufacturers as to reduce the proper amount of cotton from one-third to one-half; and this deficiency in weight is made up by worthless rubbish which does not outlast the first washing to which the cloth is subjected by the native consumer who is deceived in buying it.

Although our interest in the trade is now so small, it is well to mention here that this fraudulent practice is receiving the countenance of American trade-marks, which are still extensively used by English manufacturers; and thus the injury which American trade at first suffered through counterfeiting is now aggravated by the further dishonesty of adulteration.

It is a question whether this fraudulent practice of over-sizing would have occasioned so much outspoken condemnation among those who are interested in the English trade, excepting manufacturers, had it not been that an unlooked-for result of over-sizing, namely, mildew, made its appearance to such an extent that a large proportion of English cotton goods sent to China was, and is still, found to be unmerchantable as sound goods on reaching this country. Hence, over-sizing, or weighting, is now better and less offensively known as the "mildew question." The English manufacturers and merchants appear to have joined issue on this question. The merchants and their agents accuse the manufacturers of dishonesty, and the latter rejoin that merchants encourage and sustain the practice of weighting by buying goods so prepared in preference to honest goods. Meanwhile the trade continues, and weighting increases and is likely to continue so long as the Chinese consumer is the chief sufferer.

I have thought the subject of sufficient importance to warrant my collecting some of the more important papers and documents frequently published in English newspapers, both in China and England, and I respectfully invite your attention to the

inclosure herewith, which I think will repay perusal, as elucidating the present state of English trade in cotton goods, besides having the advantage of letting those chiefly interested speak for themselves; and they speak in no uncertain accents. The mutual recrimination of merchant and manufacturer will be noticed in these documents.

As this subject of cotton manufacture is one that has an important bearing on American interests, the department is doubtless duly informed by the consular representative at Manchester of any noteworthy movements among the cotton manufacturers of that place; and if so, I would call your attention to the proceedings of a meeting of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, held November 20, 1872, and called to consider the "mildew question." The meeting, composed chiefly of manufacturers, unanimously resolved to do nothing in the premises; but the discussion that occurred gives an interesting view of the subject as seen from their standpoint. I beg to insert here a brief digest of the most salient features of each of the ten papers comprised in the inclosure.

1. From the North China Herald, being a review of an English pamphlet on the "mildew question." The pamphlet states:

"Not long after the American war the mildew troubles began. Complaints came by every mail from India and China; whole consignments of shirtings were destroyed or rendered unmerchantable. A plentiful crop of disputes sprang up between merchant and merchant, and merchant and manufacturer. The review of the principal circumstances of the history of mildew tracks the mildew home to the sizings introduced after the American war. It is not now a very uncommon thing for a piece of gray shirting to contain even 30 per cent. of dressing. Such a cloth would consist of two-thirds cotton and one-third worthless mineral and other matter. This adulteration originally commenced in fraud, and even to the present time has more or less the taint of its origin about it."

2. An English merchant, in a letter to the North China Herald, states that notwithstanding the decision in the case of Mody *vs.* Greyson—

"The self-same fraudulent practices, which then received the condemnation of justice, are now resorted to by the manufacturer to make the rubbish he palms off on his customers other than what it really is."

3. From an article in the London Times:

"That dark chapter of the cotton manufacture known as the sizing question. * * * It was found that a free use of size gave to poor sorts of cotton the needful tenacity of twist, and, weight for length being the best of good cloth, it was also evident that the more size used the greater was the weight. Thus very soon a practice crept in, and has now spread largely over the cotton trade, of unwarrantably loading cotton with quantities of size laid on to the warps to the extent of 40, 60, and even, as the weavers assert, 100 per cent. of their original weight. This practice of deliberate adulteration has become in the cotton trade a recognized detail of manufacture, but, however it may be viewed by those interested in the practice, it must still seem a downright dishonesty to the outer world."

4. From a letter published in the Manchester newspapers:

"It would be surely better to send out (to China) what now pass as 8½ pounds, to weigh 7½ pounds leaving out the filth now used to give the additional weight. Many shirtings weighing 8½ pounds do not contain more than 6¼ pounds of yarn, yet buyers, both here and in the East, accept these because they can buy such makes at 6*d.* less than pieces with 1 pound more yarn in."

5. From a letter published in the Manchester Courier:

"I think it is in the interests of the manufacturer, as well as the shipper, that this question should be investigated, and that a meeting should be held of the representatives of both interests, so as to devise means for saving to the district loss of money and character."

6. From another letter in the same paper:

"I have long thought of writing something on the over-sizing of cloth, and I have now an opportunity. * * * The recurrence of mildew is, in my opinion, owing to the unremunerative state of the trade, which causes manufacturers to size not only their warps to excess, but their cloth also, after it is woven; and they find purchasers in Manchester merchants, who afterward grumble because they receive complaint of mildew. * * * I think it high time merchants should take this matter into serious consideration. What chance has an honest manufacturer when Manchester merchants encourage these heavy sizers? Let merchants give a fair price for an honest cloth, and they will be able to get a fair price in return. No wonder shirtings are flat in India. The natives will not buy our goods. They have been cheated so repeatedly with dishonest cloth that they are chary of buying what is represented to them as an honest cloth."

7. From a letter of the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce to the Manchester Chamber of Commerce:

"Losses, 1864–'65, from this cause (mildew) were very large. The cloth was not

only often found discolored with black and yellow spots, but in many cases its texture had become rotten. Toward the end of 1871, parcel after parcel of gray shirtings, principally if not wholly, consisting of second and lower qualities, were rejected by the Chinese buyers as 'spotted'; and during the year now elapsing, the evil has become so general that in September last it was estimated that 75 per cent. of the entire stock of gray shirtings and T-cloths in this place were unmerchantable as sound goods. The trade, in fact, was completely disorganized. This "size," there is reason to believe, is employed to work up inferior cotton, and to increase the weight of the cloth. Such general want of faith in the soundness of foreign cotton goods must tend to render them unpopular among the Chinese. And considering that foreign imports, though cheaper, have great difficulty, even under favorable circumstances, in competing with the more durable native manufactures, the trade is not in a position to bear any additional burden. * * * The committee do not hesitate to claim your prompt and active co-operation in a strict and satisfactory investigation into the causes of mildew, as well as into the most efficacious means of providing a remedy for a crying evil affecting not only the interests of the most important branch of British industry, but also the honor and reputation of British commerce."

8. From the North China Herald. Referring to certain letters (Nos. 4 and 5 of this inclosure) published in the Manchester newspapers, the article proceeds:

"But why, we may ask, have these gentlemen, and not only they, but all Lancashire, so steadily opposed any inquiry into the subject until now? Why have they so persistently affected to disbelieve in the existence of mildew? Why have they ignored all certificates to that effect sent from China, and when the mildewed goods have been returned to England, why have they hitherto retorted by furnishing counter-certificates in order to prove that mildew was a myth, and that the claims for allowances were trumped up in order to reduce losses due to other causes? We might say much more in reply to Mr. Mendel's circular, which certainly discloses a very immoral state of affairs in the manufacturing districts of Lancashire, but, &c. * * * We shall therefore conclude by expressing our ardent hope that an act of Parliament may be passed that will make such practices punishable by fine or imprisonment. The letter of the Shanhai Chamber of Commerce appears at a favorable time, and we believe it will be of great service in eradicating an evil which is now acknowledged by every one to be no longer endurable."

9. From the North China Herald, dated November 13, 1873:

"WAXED SHIRTINGS.—The practice of wholesale adulteration of unbleached cotton piece-goods seems to be as active as ever. The denunciations of the Manchester and other chambers seem to have had little effect in alleviating the evil; and even the fear, or, rather, certainty of mildew, seems only to have resulted in stimulating Manchester to devise new means for counteracting this consequence of its fraud. * * * It is also hoped by its perpetrators that this waxing process will act as an antidote to mildew, which, somewhat fortunately for the badness of our trade, has seemed inseparable from the horrid mixtures to which, under the name of sizing, cotton goods for the China market were being subjected. In other words, that the great check on further adulteration, its certainty of recoil on its perpetrators, may be anew staved off, and that shirtings, of which the foundation only consists of cotton and the remainder of a mixture of filth, of no use except to deceive the eye, may for some time again be looked upon as honest goods. * * * If a distaste for foreign piece-goods, which the action of the manufacturers is going far to create, should once be established, they will find out to their cost, when it is too late, the mistake they have made. The faith with which even piece-goods of known marks have hitherto been accepted in China has already been rudely shaken. Chops (*i. e.*, trade-marks) are imitated in a way to beguile the ignorant, and the first washing reduces the piece of supposed cloth by an eighth to a tenth, leaving in place of a durable fabric nothing but a flimsy piece of gauze. Notwithstanding all that has been said and written at both ends about this condition of affairs, the real state of the case—that the iniquities of a few are ruining the trade of the many—has not yet taken the hold that it ought."

10. Extract from the proceedings of a meeting of the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce, held November 21, 1873. In a letter from Messrs. Gilman & Co., English merchants, read to the meeting, it was stated that—

"Drills, during the past two or three years, have been sent out (from Manchester) to China very much weighted, but at the present time still more weight is being added to the goods which bear the same stamp and marks which originally obtained a name for really genuine cloth. No doubt the fraud will some day be detected by the Chinese, as it has been in India.

* * * * * * *

"Mr. Reid stated that his own experience, during the past year, had been that instead of the evil diminishing, as was hoped from the remarks made at last meeting, and from the urgent representations made to the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, it had greatly increased. The matter had become so very serious that he thought every merchant must find that the trade did not pay. The chairman said that 'at-

tention was well drawn to the subject, and if a check could not be put on it in any other way, the remedy would certainly follow in a declining trade, which would teach "that honesty is the best policy."'" * * *

THE OPENING FOR AMERICAN TRADE.

The practical bearing of this question, and the object I have in writing at such length regarding it, is to show to our government the urgent necessity and the exceedingly favorable opportunity now offered to take such action, legislative and otherwise, as will be calculated to encourage and foster the manufacture of cotton goods in the United States. Our country should by right and reason possess the advantage of manufacturing the cotton grown within her own dominions and supplying those manufactures, by direct importation, to the teeming millions of this vast empire. Our trade with China in manufactured cotton goods was once considerable and promising, but in a time of national misfortune that trade passed away to others who secured and still enjoy its benefits by the practice of downright, systematic frauds. That countless tons of clay and other adulterations used by English manufacturers should be sold to the Chinese as cotton, with the aid of counterfeited trade-marks, is evidence of the shifts made by those manufacturers to retain control of a trade that does not naturally belong to them. Notwithstanding the difference in the price of labor in both countries, it seems anomalous that England should buy cotton of the United States, transport it across the Atlantic, and, when manufactured, send that same cotton, in the shape of fabrics, by a long and circuitous route to the consumers in China, when the same market is so much nearer and easier of access to the United States where the cotton originates. American manufacturers could certainly purchase cotton in our country on the same terms offered by English manufacturers; and it would seem that the higher price for labor, paid by the American manufacturer, should be partly if not wholly compensated by cheaper transportation direct to China, across the Pacific, while English goods would have to bear the additional cost of transportation across the Atlantic, and a superfluous half of the distance from England round the eastern hemisphere to China. If American goods could avail of cheaper transportrtion even now, it must be remembered that they could not at present compete in China with grossly adulterated, and hence cheaper, English goods bearing the same trade-marks.

But the iniquities of the English trade in cotton goods are working its disorganization and perhaps destruction. When, after having fatally overreached themselves, those interested in the trade are found, as they now are, each enjoining upon his neighbor one of the first principles of morality taught in the maxim that "honesty is the best policy" (see especially papers 6, 8, 9, and 10), there is ground for hope that honesty will be allowed to prevail over deceit and fraud. But an honest trade implies honest competition; and honest competition in the foreign cotton goods trade in China would result in the ascendency of American interests, and a complete reversing of the present huge and unnatural disproportion between American and English trade in China.

The future extent of the China market for foreign cotton goods offers one of the strongest incentives to appropriate and timely action on the part of our government and manufacturers. On this subject I have little to add to what I have stated in my commercial report of 1873, as follows:

"When it is rememberd that Tien-Tsin is the single entropôt for a tract of country whose population is greater than that of the United States; that foreign goods are distributed over this country even now in such large quantities, in spite of the absence of railroads, steamers on the inland waters, good high-roads, proper vehicles, and, in fact, *all* the accessories of cheap and rapid transportation, and that their present transit to the interior is encumbered by variable taxes levied along the route, amounting in the aggregate to a prohibitive tariff, it will be seen that when these obstacles to the extension of trade are removed, as they should be for the best interests of the empire and for the encouragement of foreign trade, the increased demand for foreign manufactured goods promises to be enormous, and many fold greater than at present. The same remarks apply to the whole of China. Wherever foreign goods are sent to markets in the interior, there exist the difficulties of transportation and of indefinite and oftentimes arbitrary taxation of the goods *en route*, thereby greatly increasing, sometimes more than doubling, their cost before starting inland.

"In the face of these difficulties it will be interesting to note here the magnitude to which the trade in foreign cotton goods has grown in China. (Here follows a table showing the total value of foreign cotton goods imported into China during 1872 to be $40,649,306.)

"It is difficult to estimate the vast proportions to which this trade will increase when foreign goods find cheap and rapid access to the interior markets of this great empire. When railroads and steamers are brought into general use (the former are not yet known in China, and the latter are restricted chiefly to the sea-coast), and an equitable system of transit dues is established, then the cultivation of cotton in foreign countries

will have to be greatly increased to supply the demand in China for manufactured cotton goods."

In my dispatch No. 56, of this date, I have addressed you with regard to railroads in this country, and have informed you that a distinguished Chinese statesman and viceroy is now looking to the United States in expectation of finding our railroad system suitable for China. The prospects are now more favorable for the introduction of railroads into this country, and foreign trade may be expected to increase from the date of their adoption.

Taking into consideration all these facts, which prove the desirableness and feasibility of securing to our country the share she should properly take in the trade in cotton goods with China, the one essential requirement seems now to be the enactment of such laws as will discourage the export of raw cotton from the United States, and encourage and stimulate the manufacture of cotton and the export of cotton fabrics from the United States direct to the great markets ready to receive it. Protective legislation will deprive English manufacturers of the advantage they now have in cheap labor over those in America; and when the current of trade flows steadily through the new channel thus opened, cotton goods, superior and cheaper than those now made in England, can be furnished to foreign markets direct from the United States, the true center of the world's cotton trade.

I beg that you will consider whether the subject is of sufficient importance to merit laying this dispatch before the appropriate committees of Congress, and if this is done I would suggest the propriety of accompanying it with my commercial report for 1873, as being likely to still further elucidate the subject. What I have written may, perhaps, also appear to you worthy of circulation among those who are likely to be interested in the question.

ELI T. SHEPPARD.

BRITISH SIZED GOODS.

[Extract from a report by Consul Sheppard, of Tientsin, dated September 30, 1875, and published in Commercial Relations for that year.]

There are, however, other causes in operation which have not only tended to reduce profits, but which, unfortunately, are operating to weaken confidence and destroy trade. Pre-eminently among these may be named the deplorable and almost universal practice of over-sizing cotton piece-goods by English manufacturers. By this practice cotton goods for the China market, which are sold by the piece, weighing a certain number of pounds, are so prepared by the manufacturers that the amount of cotton is reduced from one-third to one-half; the deficiency in the weight of the cotton being made up by "sizing," a worthless rubbish, which disappears at the first washing by the native consumer, who is defrauded thereby.

This subject was so fully discussed in my report for 1874 to the Department, that I do not deem a further reference to it necessary at this time. The question of supplying manufactured cotton goods to China is deserving of the most careful consideration of our government. It is perfectly demonstrable that the great commerce of China, for the future as in the past, will be commanded by cotton. A favorable solution of this question by our government would almost certainly result in the commercial ascendency of the United States in this empire. The present disorganized state of British trade with China in cotton manufactured goods offers an admirable opportunity for the United States to regain her former commercial prosperity.

POOR BRITISH IMITATIONS OF AMERICAN COTTONS.

[Extract from a report by Consul-General Seward, of Shanghai, dated November, 1875, and published in Commercial Relations for that year.]

I advised the Department last year that there was but little reason to hope for a development of our cotton-goods trade with China. I see now no occasion to change my opinion. Even the drills set down in the returns as American are largely of English manufacture, the term describing the sort rather than the origin of the article. I am even told that the Chinese dealers have become so used to buying the inferior English imitation of our cotton goods that, with a conservative habit which is characteristic of the race, they prefer the imitation to the genuine and superior article.

COUNTERFEITING AMERICAN BRANDS.

[Extract from a report by Consul Bailey, of Hong-Kong, dated January 16, 1876, and published in Commercial Relations for 1877.]

A large business was formerly done in Hong-Kong in American drills, jeans, and sheetings, but, owing to small supplies and extreme prices during the civil war, the

Chinese had recourse to those of English and Dutch manufacture, the best American trade-marks being put on them to deceive buyers as to their origin, and they are now used exclusively in the south of China. But their quality is much poorer than the same class of goods from the United States, and it is to be hoped, with a return to old values at home, that American makes may again resume their former position.

AMERICAN VS. ENGLISH COTTON GOODS.

[Extract from a report by Consul Colby, of Chin Kiang, dated October 1, 1876, and published in Commercial Relations for that year.]

The Chinese are yearly more and more disposed to supply their demand for cotton as much as possible from their own fields. The crop in the district north of the river is reported as having fallen off to the extent of three-tenths of a full crop, against seven-tenths last year; and west of here the falling off is to the extent of five-tenths of a full crop, against eight-tenths last year. And the price is reported 50 per cent. higher.

The greater part of cotton goods imported to China come from England; a very large per cent. of which are of a very inferior quality, full of sizing or dressing to make them appear far better than they really are. This causes great complaint among the natives, who are keen to scent an imposition.

My acquaintance with the Chinese has convinced me that they would prefer, and regard as an economy, a better class of goods, even at higher prices.

America once took a leading part in the cotton-goods trade of China, and might again take it instead of sending raw cotton to England and depriving of employment the thousands of idle operatives at home. There is no doubt that the American manufacturer can, if he chooses, lay cotton goods down in China as cheaply as the English. The experiment is worthy of the careful consideration of American merchants who wish to extend our commerce in the East.

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS AT CANTON.

[Extract from a report by Consul Lincoln, of Canton, published in Commercial Relations for 1877.]

A few pieces of American shirtings were recently imported, and proved upon examination to be of a superior quality to English manufactures of same cost.

It is beyond doubt that American cotton piece-goods could compete most successfully with those of English manufacture, if proper attention were given to the subject by those desirous of extending our trade in the East, and sufficient inducements held out by manufacturers to produce increased efforts on the part of our merchants here

AMERICAN TEXTILES AT NEW CHWANG.

[Extract from a report by Consul Knight, of New Chwang, 1878.]

Since this consular district has now become one of undenied importance to American trade, I have endeavored to give this report a business-like and practical character; and, in closing it, I would say a few words more in reference to the textiles of our country, or to such of them as are now imported into China.

Acting in my capacity as commissioner to the Centennial Exhibition, I gave much attention to the textile industries of America, and, with the view of testing their adaptation to the wants of the Chinese, I obtained, through the courtesy of Mr. Edward Atkinson, for myself, one of the boxes of "samples of cotton manufactures prepared for the foreign commissions." This I forwarded to China, and since my return to New Chwang I have reported as fully as possible upon the contents to that gentleman. Of course it will be understood that my report to Mr. Atkinson, to which I would refer interested readers of this paper, had reference to the markets of New Chwang and its tributaries alone; but, judging from the recent statistics published by the foreign customs inspectorate, it is applicable to every other district in China, and it must be peculiarly gratifying to our manufacturers to find that their products are making such decided headway in this country, while the consumption of the British-made piece-goods, which come into competition with our own, is on the decrease.

In this northern region the natives look principally to purity, warmth, and durability in the materials they wear, and I am happy to be able to say that the American manufactures, combining as they do all these qualities, are rapidly gaining in favor and reputation.

I am not in a position to say whether the importing foreign merchant has found the business remunerative; but this I do know, that the Chinese who buy upon the Shanghai market (which it is hardly necessary to mention is the chief distributing center in China for all foreign-made merchandise, and at which nearly all our goods are landed), and who sell upon this, find encouragement in the trade. And I think it not unlikely that our merchants, rather than sit down quietly at that place, sad-

dling their importations with the heavy expense of landing, reshipping, a second freightage, and marine insurance, will realize the fact that New Chwang has become a very important customer to us, and that by shipping to her direct from New York all such additional expense might be saved. Briefly, my report to Mr. Atkinson said that the drillings, the product of the Pepperell, Massachusetts, Laconia, Stark, and Boott Mills claim chief notice. These, in the order named, take precedence with our consumers.

The importations from Shanghai for the six months from 1st March last may be set down as over 200,000 pieces, while the receipts of the English fabric scarcely amounted to 127,000 pieces. Moreover, the comparison further favors the American drill, when the fact is taken into consideration that nearly the whole of the imports have gone into the interior, while close upon 50,000 pieces of English drillings remain unsold in the place. From the customs returns I find the following imports into New Chwang for the quarter ending September 30, 1878:

	American.	English.
Drills	48,255	46,590
Sheetings	19,665	6,565
Jeans	400	90

Sheetings take the next place, and of the supplies sent here 60,000 pieces come from America originally, and 14,000 pieces only from England. Under this last heading there is included a cloth which purports to be and is styled a sheeting, but it resembles more an English-made heavy gray shirting, of which, however, it lacks in finish, the reed being closer and the yarn and general quality finer than those of the American sheeting proper.

The consumers of this district have shown some liking for this, and I am told the article is rising, and not unsuccessfully, with its English congener in the more southern districts of China, Fychow, Kiangsi, and up the great river Yangtse. Thus far, however, it is to be feared those who have introduced the article, and who continue to deal in it, are still looking for the benefits which ought to flow from their experiments. In other words, the trade hitherto has been unprofitable, and without a doubt it will remain so unless our mills can manufacture the commodity on terms that will enable our merchants to compete with Lancaster on the score of value. The extension of Chinese consumption of this shirting is purely a matter of cost, and I should strongly recommend our manufacturers to do all in their power to effect the necessary reduction. It may be that a period of loss is still before them, but I am confident that eventually the return will come to them in overflowing measure.

COUNTERFEITING AMERICAN BRANDS FOR THE CHINESE MARKET.

[Extract from a report by Consul Shepard, of Hankow, October, 1878.]

I have placed at the head of the import table the item of 18,915 pieces of American sheeting. It is a gratifying fact, as I learn from conference with American and British trading residents as well as from careful record, that there is a rising demand for American cotton fabrics to supply the inward transit trade. The considerable amount above reported accrued entirely in the last quarter of the period—that is, from April 1 to June 30, 1878—and I am informed the demand still advances. To what extent it has already reached is not fully determined; and how long it may continue is, of course, problematical. By far the greatest portion of goods sent inland are purchased and controlled at Shanghai by native dealers; and from these it is next to impossible to gain reliable information, either as to the quantity consumed or the satisfaction given by the goods. What I have reported is from the custom-house records, and appertains almost entirely to American and British traders inland under "transit passes."

Whatever may be the dimensions of the trade, however, the gratifying point is that a demand has arisen for our fabrics, defined and indisputable. This is unquestionably due to the reliable character of the American goods. For some late years British cottons have nearly driven the American from the markets of China by counterfeiting brands and styles, and by giving apparently heavier textures at as low, and even lower, prices than American manufacturers could compete with. It is proverbially known that this was done mainly by "loading" a flimsy cloth till it appeared, before wetting, to be heavier and better than the United States goods it undersold. The natural results of this unworthy and dishonest trickery of trade was to disparage American productions, and at length to cause them to disappear. This topic has undoubtedly been heretofore fully illustrated and ventilated by my predecessors and colleagues in the Chinese consular service, and I need not enlarge upon it. But time, the sure exponent of wrong and its consequences, has at length wrought a partial change, and a revolution, if not a retribution, in the trade is very clearly foreshadowed. The native consumer has apparently at length both learned of the injurious devices of British manufacturers, and had his scrutiny aroused to a more careful

inspection of his purchases. He is beginning to prefer substantial products to the cheaper and worthless imitations, and the outcome may be anticipated to be, as it ought, a distrust of all British merchandise, and a preference for the genuine American. It is certain that reaction has already commenced, as I have indicated; and it needs only that American cotton manufacturers be true to the increasing demand of the times for honesty, integrity, and enterprise to give them the control of cotton fabrics in China. This can only be compassed by the traits I have indicated; for there must be honesty in providing the raw material and the fabrics; integrity in adhesion to the initial standard of their marks and brands, and enterprise in pushing their wares. These characteristics met, and these conditions fulfilled, will surely effect the desired end; and will not only redound to their own interests, but aid in the introduction of other American manufactures, and go far to assist intelligent and patriotic officials abroad in establishing national honor, and hence resultant national glory.

AMERICAN PIECE GOODS AT FOO CHOW.

[Extract from a report by Consul De Lano, of Foo-Chow, October, 1878.]

The total aggregate of piece goods exceeds somewhat that of last year, and I am informed by dealers that American shirtings and drills are rapidly growing in favor and taking precedence of English manufactures. With the same facilities for importing from the United States that are afforded by the various lines of steamers for importing from London, it would be safe to predict that American manufacturers might soon enjoy almost a monopoly of the cotton piece-goods trade in China, which trade, it is believed, would grow to one of great magnitude, as inland taxation and other means of restriction would be gradually withdrawn by the Chinese Government.

In addition to imports shown in the accompanying Table A, I am informed that there has been a large amount of American drills brought from Shanghai and other coast ports in native bottoms. This on account of lower rates of freight, as well as a smaller duty when passing through the native customs. These drills are now much used by the natives for sails (in lieu of bamboo mats), and a considerable quantity has been absorbed in the manufacture of tents for soldiers operating against the aborigines in Formosa. There has, however, been a noticeable increase in the importation of T-cloths, a Manchester manufacture, designed to supplant a native cloth of the same name. It has the advantage over the native goods of being wider and smoother, and is, therefore, more and more sought after.

AMERICAN VS. BRITISH CLOTHS IN CHINA.

[Extract from a report by Consul-General Bailey, of Shanghai, 1878.]

The figures of receipts and distribution given in the table following are so self-contained and speak so forcibly of the growth of the trade in American cotton goods that I am merely repeating what may be seen at a glance when I say that the demand for these goods for the past five years has steadily improved, the importations have annually increased, and the consumption has kept pace with the enlarged receipts. If, therefore, the future is to be judged by the past, the prospects are most encouraging, and everything points to the probability of the American manufacturer reaping the reward of his wisdom in making honest cloth and refusing the temptation to adulterate his goods with clay and other foreign matter, the practice of which has been carried to such great length in England. In talking with the most experienced merchants in the piece-goods trade, I gather the opinion that cloth made entirely of cotton cannot be manufactured so cheaply in England as in America, and it is therefore believed that as the Chinese taste for honest cloth grows the requirements for such must increase, and the supply to meet that increase be drawn from the United States. The Chinese have never refused to acknowledge the superiority of the American cottons, as is shown by the higher prices which they have always paid for the standard drills and sheetings than for any other goods, but the cheap adulterated English goods supply a want in point of low cost which the Chinaman cannot overlook, and which the American manufacturer will have to combat.

With the object of selling a cheap cloth here to compete with the low-priced English goods of light weight—T-cloths and gray shirtings—experiments have already been made in America, and trial shipments have been imported by American merchants; but the result has not been successful, owing to the original high cost of the goods and their inability to compete in price with the English manufactures of the same weights and dimensions. Standard sheetings and drills of 14 pounds weight per piece comprise the bulk of the importations from the United States; but some sheetings of medium weight (12 pounds), made by the Continental, Nashua, and Boott Mills, have been introduced and have gradually found a market at prices which are believed to cover cost.

Briefly, then, standard American drills and sheetings have an assured market here;

and what is now required of the American manufacturer is that he shall produce an honest cloth—a light sheeting or shirting—of good finish, at a price which will enable his fabric to sell here without loss, and replace the English 6 or 7 pounds T-cloths, or 8¼ pounds gray shirting—cloths doubtless well known to him.

That this matter is one well worthy of the closest consideration of the American manufacturer there can be no doubt, when it is borne in mind that the people of this country, from one end of the land to the other, mainly clothe themselves in cotton, and that the value of the annual import of foreign-made cottons is 19,000,000 to 20,000,000 Haikwan taels, or say $28,000,000 to $30,000,000, of which six-sevenths of the whole come from Great Britain.

To my knowledge, the American merchants here have freely used their brains, their money, and their time in endeavoring to have light cotton goods made in America suited to the wants of the China markets; but all the information and suggestions they have given will be of no avail unless the manufacturer in the United States appreciates the value of the China trade and decides for himself that he *must* make goods which will compete successfully in these markets. South China has so far taken but few American cottons, and the development of the trade may be said to be wholly owing to the increase in the demand from North China. Shanghai receives the import and distributes to Ningpo and the Yangtze River ports Chefoo, Tientsin, and Newchwang—the two last mentioned being the markets which take off the largest quantities.

The prices which have ruled in China in 1878 are said to have given, on the whole, no profit, though in some cases a small percentage has been made; but exchange has been low, and throughout the year has been unfavorable to the importer. There are likewise a good many receivers of the same brands of goods, and the competition at times to sell has tended to keep values at a low level, by which the Chinaman has of course benefited.

QUALITY ALONE CAN KEEP THE AMERICAN COTTONS IN THE MARKET.

[Extract from a report by Consul Shepard, of Hankow, September, 1879.]

How the industries of the United States can be fostered and stimulated by the increase of importations into China is a question of national interest. Confined very closely at present to cotton fabrics, it is matter of great moment for American manufacturers to hold and increase the market they now have, as a first consideration. In a previous report I pointed out that an increase of consumption would surely follow integrity in the raw material and a rigid adherence to the established standards. Any deterioration would be speedily discovered and as speedily result in disaster; for while the multitude buy, the trade is actually ruled by few, and just as soon as these few found the goods reduced in material weight by "loading," or the value affected by inferior raw material, the same result would follow as did to the English manufactures—the natives would cease to buy. This necessity of adherence to honest manufacture is intensified from the fact that the British manufacturers have discovered their great error in having adulterated their goods for a nefarious gain, and are using herculean endeavors to recover their lost ground. Every motive, therefore, should induce our home patrons of this trade to keep their goods up to a high standard.

Since penning the foregoing observations, I have met with a forcible indorsement of the views expressed, in a Shanghai daily paper, English, of course. It is partially editorial and partially from the Calcutta Englishman. The writer says:

"Manchester goods have long ago lost the good name they once enjoyed for being really cotton, since as much as 75 per cent. of many of them is made up of sizing of some sort. Bombay cotton goods are also reported to be falling off in quality, and now we see that the temptation of adulteration has become too strong for the American spinners. A Melbourne merchant writes to a correspondent in England: 'We are very sorry to say that our American trade grows daily at the cost of our English department. Your English manufacturers must employ more labor-saving machinery, and not try to meet this American competition by reducing the wages of your workmen. We have noticed of late that in some cases the Americans, under the pressure of keen competition, are sending goods of inferior quality. Nothing will help the English more than this. It is quality alone that has put the Americans where they are in these markets—their quality keeps them here; if that falls off they will lose their hold at once.'"

This commentary is published as late as September 11, 1879, and at this date is being industriously circulated through China, and what is predicated of the Australian market will be more disastrously true of China. Nothing of comment can enforce the closing language of the quotation, but its essence should be infused into the American mind—*quality alone is putting American wares into all markets, and quality alone can keep them there.*

THE NECESSITY OF PRESERVING THE PURITY OF AMERICAN COTTONS.

[Extract from a report by Consul Denny, of Tientsin, October, 1879.]

While the profits of American manufactures are indeed small, yet by producing a superior quality of goods they are establishing a trade upon a basis which will eventually defy all serious competition. Even now that economy which purchases the best article as the cheapest is rapidly gaining the confidence of the Chinese, as may be seen in the growing demand for American drills. Foreign goods are bought and sold by the Chinese by weight as well as measurement, just as native goods are bought and sold, and hence the quality is judged by the weight. American drills weigh just as much after washing as they did before, but not so with the English, for there is a very perceptible difference in appearance as well as in weight after washing. It is this difference in appearance and weight that speaks so forcibly in favor of the American cottons, and so long as the American merchants continue to pursue the present course, this confidence will continue to grow. This view of the case, I am aware, is not shared by every one. In a recent report by one of the British consuls, who is usually very reliable, he expresses his opinion upon the subject in the following language:

"American manufacturers have as yet steadily set their faces against sizing, facing, and other abominations, but they do not know the Eastern market yet; and if the trade in honest cottons does not show better results in the future than it has in the past, they must eventually have to suit their stuffs to the prices Chinamen will pay or take their goods to another market."

The consul cannot be blamed for this opinion, for it is expressed in the interest of the British merchant. At the same time, I should deeply regret to see American merchants act upon it, for the very day they begin the adulteration of their cloths that day will begin their decline, which will continue until they are driven from this market. The reason is obvious: the United States produces the best quality of cotton in the world; with skilled labor and machinery equal to any, as a legitimate result her cloths must be superior. The English cottons being inferior from adulteration, &c., and with *better sizing*, together with skilled labor and machinery equal to the best, England can produce an inferior quality of goods cheaper than the United States manufacturers can. Hence the only safety for this branch of American trade with China is to force competition for the best quality of cotton goods.

Neither have foreign manufacturers anything serious to fear from the manufacture of cottons in China out of native cotton with foreign looms and foreign operatives; for the texture of Chinese cotton being coarser and shorter of fiber than that produced in the United States, the cloths are bound to be coarser and of an inferior quality, being, in fact, only somewhat finer quality to that now produced from the native looms, and hence can never satisfy the demand which is being created here for the finer American drills. Some time ago three bales of native cotton were exported and manufactured into cloth upon a foreign loom by foreign operatives, &c., with the result above stated. I make these observations because of the fact that some uneasiness has been manifested on the part of American merchants, through the home papers, on this subject, owing to the efforts which are now being made to erect cotton-mills at Shanghai for the manufacture of drills from native cotton. The more intelligent opinion is that in the event such mills are established in China their opposition will be to the native producer rather than otherwise.

THE CHINESE WILL HAVE SIZED GOODS.

[Extracts from a report by Consul-General Baily, of Shanghai, dated February 3, 1880.]

Although our trade in cottons has been making rapid strides during late years, when the English fabrics show a considerable decline, attributable justly or unjustly to deterioration, we must bear in mind that in some respects we are but regaining lost ground; for previous to the outbreak of our civil war our importation of American drills, at Shanghai, during the year 1861, according to imperial maritime customs returns, reached the respectable figure of 400,000 pieces.

It is a fallacy to believe that English heavy-sized goods, such as drills, jeans, and sheetings, can be driven out of the China market by pure American manufacture. The importation during 1879 of 452,000 pieces drills, 147,000 pieces jeans, and 88,000 pieces sheetings, seems to me conclusive that there is an actual and increasing want for those cheap and heavily-sized goods—a want which English manufacturers are only too ready to fill to any extent and with benefit to themselves. Why should we not supply the want? These Chinese are perfectly aware of the intrinsic value of clayed goods; they only buy them for what they are worth; but there are times when the American superior and more lasting fabrics are beyond their means, and then they necessarily fall back upon the cheaper qualities of English make.

Statistics clearly show that an increased consumption of American goods does not mean a decrease in English goods.

Mr. Adkins, Her Britannic Majesty's consul in Newchwang, in his report for 1878, attributes the increase in American drills to an abundant harvest of that year, which enabled the province to become purchaser of an increased amount of luxuries. He says:

"Just so. American drills are expensive luxuries; they once commanded the trade because they were always superior to English drills, which are merely a copy of American. At the time of the civil war the import of American drills into China ceased, and upon their reappearance they found themselves confronted by an inferior make of English and Dutch fabrics, which supplied the wants of the consumer at lower prices. That an American cannot hope to compete with an English manufacturer abroad in point of price is quite clear whilst he requires protection from his rival in his own country. American drills are a specialty of the American manufacturer, but when the inhabitants of Manchuria have an abundant harvest they do not pay the American a price that leaves him a profit, whilst they pay remunerative prices for English goods. For although the consumption of American goods has been increasing, the business has not been in the long run remunerative to shippers, whilst the trade in English drills has."

What I have said under the heading of gray cotton cloth in *general* in regard to the profit of this year's operations applies as well to American goods generally.

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Mr. Maclean, of this place, in his retrospect for 1878, after speaking of the important demand for "low counts" of 84 pounds gray shirtings, says: "But it has been far otherwise with medium and high-classed goods, with cloths of honest material. There has been no turning point in their history, and holders, seeking for, yearning after a market and finding none, have had to wrestle with their stocks the year through; and in this it may be asked, is there not a plea on behalf of Lancashire for further and higher flights in the pursuit of science? Yea, verily. Clay has paid while cotton has lost, and the native has preferred the former, being thoroughly alive to the intrinsic merits of the two. This argument is, that filled stuffs, if kept from the perniciously-rarefying influences of clean water, will last almost as long and be as serviceable as will the purer article, and the difference in price in these days of straitened means is an all-powerful consideration in their economy." This is true to this day; the people want clayed goods as well as pure ones. At the same time the adulteration must not be carried to such excess as to deteriorate the fiber, for whenever such excess is practiced the consequences will soon fall upon the manufacturer.

Of continentals, Mr. Maclean says:

"They are more suitable for the river ports, but even these are bought chiefly when the prices contrast favorably with the rates ruling for English heavy shirting. Nor will there be much of a change in the character of the trade until the American manufacturers have learned to hit the tastes of the Chinese in the matter of finish, &c., in which it is generally allowed they are still far behind the Lancashire makers."

Some attempts have again been made to introduce *lighter goods*, but evidently manufacturers did not hit the mark.

Trial shipments of *white shirtings* have likewise been noticed on this market, and they seem to have given more satisfactory results than the former, although they still stand at a great disadvantage with the English cloth. I will be better understood when I say that out of 1,000,000 pieces English white shirtings imported here last year, at least 750,000 pieces may be put down as heavily clayed.

In conclusion, I must reiterate my remarks in last year's trade report, namely, our American merchants in China have, for years, done everything in their power to induce manufacturers at home to make a cloth of lighter weight that will *compete* with the English, but all their suggestions, labor, money, and energies seem to have been wasted. We shall make no headway so long as there is no clear understanding, and so long as an understanding is either not at all or only partly acted upon, namely, that China must have a cloth in all respects indentically the same as English shirtings, known as 6, 7, and 8.4 pound shirtings of 39–40 yards, and 6, 7, and 8 pound T-cloth, which, it is hardly necessary to add, do not by far contain that weight of pure material which their denomination would indicate, and which, moreover, is neither expected nor wanted by the Chinese.

So, then, all efforts will be fruitless, unless manufacturers in the United States appreciate the magnitude of the China trade, and recognize the necessity of making goods which will compete successfully on this market.

BRITISH CONSULAR OPINION.

ENGLISH VS. AMERICAN PIECE GOODS AT SHANGHAI.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Davenport. British consul, dated October, 1878.]

The American trade in piece goods is rapidly increasing, and the following table, supplied to me by P. Maclean, esq., of this port, shows this graphically:

IMPORTS OF AMERICAN GOODS.

		1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.
Drills	bales..	2,630	6,801	9,952	19,612
Sheetings	do...	1,135	2,900	4,265	14,461
Jeans	do...	Nil.	Nil.	360	2,597

This increase is positively startling; and as the power of the Chinese to consume foreign cloths increases but slowly, it had a marked effect on the import of the same fabrics of British origin. The reason for the increase is popularly supposed to be the purity of the American goods; but some hold the opinion that the New England manufacturers are pushing off their accumulated stocks of cottons because they cannot find a market for them at any price in America. Be this as it may, however, there is no doubt that the trade in American goods hitherto in China has not been a profitable one, either to the manufacturers in America or to the importers here. It has, however, been well remarked by one of our local newspapers, that "it must be very gratifying to the American people to find that, notwithstanding the unsatisfactoriness of their trade pecuniarily, the outlet for some of their goods in China is extending so rapidly; to find that, in spite of famine, taxation, and the many other obstructions against which foreigners have to contend, the offtake by China is increasing; while the consumption of China's own productions, and of others of the same genus, the products of British industry, is falling off."

There still exist the same complaints against adulteration and mildew of English cottons which have been so rife during the past few years. Claims for compensation by importers here against manufacturers at home meet with no success. Their defense, and the defense of every one engaged in the sale of fabrics made of mixtures of various proportions of cotton and "dirt," is that it pays them better to adulterate than to be honest. Nobody is hoodwinked in this matter; for an 8-pound shirting made of eight pounds of good honest cotton, which our manufacturers would be only too pleased to weave, Chinamen will not give a fair price. They will give a proportionately better price for 5 pounds of cotton and 3 pounds of China clay and size. Not being philanthropists, but men working to make a living, they naturally weave and sell the latter. The Chinese themselves are as much to blame in the matter as the manufacturers and warehousemen are; and between the two the innocent importer in China, the British merchant in Shanghai, comes to grief, having his contracts thrown up on the one hand by the Chinese, in case of excessive mildew from causes beyond his control, and being refused all compensation from the manufacturers in England. American manufacturers have as yet steadily set their faces against sizing, facing, and other abominations; but they do not know the Eastern market yet, and if the trade in honest cottons does not show better results in the future than it has in the past, they must eventually have to suit their stuffs to the prices Chinamen will pay or take their goods to another market.

It is not to be expected that the New England manufacturer, any more than the Old England one, will care to run his mills at a loss to himself in order that the Chinese may buy honest cotton cloths below their market value. The preparation, wrapping, packing, and shipment of American goods are, as yet, clumsily done, and an excessive proportion of them arrive damaged by sea-water. English cottons, on the other hand, are so well packed and so carefully carried by the canal steamers that damage from that cause is now very rare.

AMERICAN VS. BRITISH T-CLOTHS AND DRILLS.

[Extract from a report, for 1879, by the acting British consul at Shanghai.]

T-cloths.—Although this fabric ranks next to gray shirtings in the amount imported into China, the trade in it does not show the same marked expansion as both gray and

white shirtings exhibit. This is accounted for in various ways. Probably the most natural and likely explanation is that T-cloths are more like the native hand-made cloth than any other fabric. The cotton harvests of 1876, 1877, and 1878 were unusually good, and native cloth was proportionately cheap. The demand for T-cloths would be accordingly but small, as the Chinese would find it pay better to buy the native stuff. Others say that the reason why the trade in T-cloths does not increase, as we might reasonaly expect, is because of the competition of American sheetings and continentals. The following table shows the off-take at the principal markets supplied by Shanghai in 1878 and 1879:

Cities.	1878.	1879.
	Pieces.	*Pieces.*
Ningpo	185, 351	180, 462
Chinkiang	178, 215	478, 745
Hankow	334, 013	445, 826
Chefoo	252, 706	323, 691
Tientsin	378, 726	566, 849
Newchwang	276, 704	137, 984
Local	250, 950	201, 365

The increases at Hankow, Chefoo, and Tientsin are more satisfactory, but the decrease at Newchwang is quite inexplicable. That it is not owing to American competition is proved by the import of American sheetings and continentals having only increased from 72,850 pieces in 1878 to 81,475 pieces in 1879. The deficient cotton crop of 1879 may lead us to hope for an increased import of T-cloths during the first half of 1880, especially if it be a fact, as I am informed it is, that English T cloth, in innumerable instances, excels the American continental in quality, finish, adaptability to Chinese wants, and in cheapness.

Drills.—In this fabric the English manufacturer is brought into lively competition with his American rival. The deliveries during 1878 and 1879 are:

	1878.	1879.
	Pieces.	*Pieces.*
English and Dutch	601, 601	608, 113
American	415, 358	518, 029

This would seem to show that the American is coming up in the race with the European manufacturer. But it is only fair to mention that the trade in English and Dutch drills has been much more remunerative to the importer than the trade in American drills. On the 31st of December, 1879, there remained in stock 123,750 pieces of American drills against only 20,000 pieces of English and Dutch.

ENGLISH VS. AMERICAN DRILLS, SHEETINGS, &c.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Forest, British consul, dated Tientsin, February 28, 1879.]

It is idle to suppose that inferiority in quality of our sheetings, jeans, and, above all, drills, has not led to the loss of the commanding place these goods once occupied in China, particularly in the north.

I would draw the attention of the Manchester manufacturer to the following tables, which ought to convince him that his goods will shortly be nearly unsalable here, while the business of his rivals in the United States and elsewhere is largely increasing.

Tables showing import of English and American drills, sheetings, and jeans since 1876.

	1876.	1877.	1878.	Increase or decrease in 1878.
Drills:	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*
English*	272, 409	120, 005	61, 662	Decrease. 58, 343
American	104, 366	90, 500	113, 589	Increase . 23, 089
Sheetings:				
English	128, 350	39, 257	20, 045	Decrease. 19, 212
American	Unclassed.	144, 786	187, 105	Increase . 42, 319
Jeans:				
English	164, 835	98, 560	30, 010	Decrease. 68, 550
American	Unclassed.	24, 414	26, 575	Increase . 2, 161

* Decrease in English drills since 1876, 210,747 pieces

MANCHESTER VS. AMERICAN AND CHINESE COTTONS.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Frater, British consul, dated March 29, 1879.]

I now proceed to a brief review of the import trade, and first present a comparative table of the principal articles of consumption, excluding opium, for the years 1876, 1877, and 1878, with the weights in English cwt.

Articles.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1878 compared with 1877.	
				Increase.	Decrease.
Gray shirtings.....pieces..	43,632	43,136	32,000	.....	11,136
White shirtings.....do...	26,961	32,217	32,355	138	.....
Sundry cottons.....do...	18,189	22,606	20,521	.....	2,085
English camlets.....do...	2,507	3,671	2,970	.....	701
Long ells camlets.....do...	1,990	1,643	1,294	.....	349
Sundry woolens.....do...	3,008	3,621	3,769	.....	148
Nail-rod iron.....cwt..	1,219	509	.....	.....	509
Lead, in pigs.....do...	8,352	8,308	9,863	1,555	.....
Tin, in slabs.....do...	140	183	200	17	.....
Cotton yarn.....do...	93	464	235	.....	229
Cuttle fish.....do...	303	534	1,189	655	.....
Grass cloth, coarse.....do...	485	398	396	.....	2
Medicines.....do...	994	957	984	27	.....
Nankeens.....do...	213	288	899	611	.....
Paper, of two qualities.....do...	1,895	1,434	1,490	56	.....

The above shows serious decreases in the cottons and woolens, whereas, judging by the experience of former years, one would think that the annually increased wealth of the district, arising from the extended cultivation and sale of tea, should have led to an opposite result. There certainly was, according to the customs detailed returns, an increase in the particular items of white and dyed shirtings, English drills, chintzes, Turkey reds, cambrics, Dutch camlets, and lastings. The poorer classes had, in the beginning of the year, to contend against the high price of rice, which drove them to purchase nankeens, of which there was a largely increased importation both in foreign vessels and junks, and were still more embarrassed during the rest of the year by the prevalence of much sickness, which carried off many of their number. It appears, too, that the rate of exchange on the mainland in 1876 and 1877 having been favorable for operations in Manchester goods, foreign merchants in Amoy laid in large stocks in those years and made use of Tamsuy as an outlet, with the result that the market here was overstocked, it being actually the fact that there are goods of 1876 and 1877 only now coming into consumption. I am told that, owing to the extension of the tea and other native trades, many mercantile houses on the mainland that had no connection with this district before lately established agencies here, and that these latter naturally push forward produce received from their principals, a great part of which, in the case at least of Ningpo and Chingchew hongs, consist of native cloth. No less than 3,809 of the pieces of gray shirtings were re-exported. According to what a local foreign importer has told me the people here have begun to find out that these Manchester goods have deteriorated in quality, and may in future show a preference for Chinese and American cloths, both of which are said to be growing in favor in various parts of the mainland. Notwithstanding the poverty of the lower classes and other causes, the 1878 importations of cotton piece goods other than gray shirtings were double what they were in 1874, before which time they came in small quantities, and bigger than those of 1875 and 1876, facts that were probably due to the gradual increase of the population by immigration, and the greater spread of wealth among the tea-manufacturing classes.

ENGLISH VS. AMERICAN COTTONS AT NEWCHWANG.

[Extract from a report by the British consul, dated March 13, 1879.]

Cotton goods.—Gray shirtings excepted, all these show a very marked increase. A great partiality was shown for American drills, 210,000 pieces of which were sold during the year. The increase in cotton goods may be accounted for by the fact that the abundant harvest of the year enabled the province to become a purchaser of an increased amount of luxuries. The diminished consumption of gray shirtings is due to the bad quality of the article which the greed of the English manufacturers would foist upon purchasers.

BRITISH SIZED COTTONS IN CHINA.

[Extract from a report dated Chefoo, March 10, 1879, by Mr. Gardner, British consul.]

Other adverse influences have tended to check our trade. Foremost among these is the depreciation in the value of silver, commencing after the Franco-German war of 1870. After the payment of the war indemnity, China was flooded with silver from Germany, and since then, the enormous out-turns of the Nevada mines have run down the price of silver. Our manufacturers have felt the effect of this very severely, and the American manufacturers have been placed at a great advantage. To counteract these disadvantages, Manchester hit upon the desperate remedy of heavily sizing its textiles; I say nothing of the morality of the practice, but there is a Chinese proverb that "the conjuror does not deceive the man who beats the gong for him," and the attempt to sell glue as cloth to a people as skilled as the Chinese are in the arts of putting iron filings and cactus leaves in tea, and water in silk, was certainly injudicious. The consequence is, our textiles have got a bad name in the country; the demand for them is yearly decreasing, and their place is being supplied by American manufactures. Gray shirtings have been imported into Chefoo during the past five years in the following quantities:

	Pieces.
1874	438,399
1875	347,259
1876	299,142
1877	252,003
1878	229,463

American drills, though 40 per cent. dearer, are driving English drills out of the market. Last year the imports to this port were respectively—

	Pieces.
English drills	14,673
American drills	58,105
English sheetings	871
American sheetings	59,943

BRIGHTER PROSPECTS.

The political situation in Europe during the last two years has told heavily against Manchester with regard to the whole of China, while the recent floods and the famine of 1877 have injuriously affected its trade with Shantung. Brighter prospects are, I trust, in store. Silver must either find its level or be discarded as a circulating medium. The war clouds in Europe will, it is hoped, clear away. Manchester will perhaps gain experience by the sharp lesson inflicted on it, and turn out fabrics which will wash and wear, as well as appear as if they would do so, and may again win for itself the confidence which it has nearly lost. The spirit of progress is moving over the face of the stagnant waters of this empire, and may perhaps gradually evolve order from its chaotic forces and vivify its buried resources. With the growing prosperity of the inhabitants, the desire for improved communications will increase, and trade will magnify to an extent little dreamed of in England.

Take this province, for example, and the one commodity of cotton textiles. Its present consumption is not more than 1,000,000 pieces per annum. The import in foreign vessels to Chefoo during 1878 was a little over 750,000 pieces, that by the Grand Canal about 150,000 pieces, from other sources say 250,000. Of this 150,000 pieces find their way to other provinces and to Corea.

BRITISH SIZED GOODS.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Allen, acting consul at Shanghai, 1879.]

The first thought that must occur to any one who reads that the import of gray shirtings has shown an increase of 1,500,000 pieces during the year under review is, Will this increase be permanent? I am myself of opinion that during the next few years, at any rate, the population of China will not consume so much, because the demand which has led to the increase must be viewed mainly as a replenishing of the supplies that have been exhausted in the time of famine, when there was no money to buy more. In 1879, on the other hand, there have been good harvests all over the country, which has enabled the rustic to fit himself with a fresh stock of clothes. The preceding tables show that the prices have been low, and thus the fabric has been brought within the reach of every one's purse.

The question of sizing and filling must not be shirked; but as the remarks of Consul Gardner on this subject have caused the wrath of Manchester to descend on his head, and as he has been told not to talk about matters which he does not understand, I will shelter myself by quoting directly from a report published in Shanghai by one of our most experienced merchants: "Sizing has not yet died out, but the experience of the past year, and more especially of its latter half, must have convinced its most ardent devotee that the art is no longer what it was, or at least that the number of its votaries in China is lessening. The importation of filled cottons has decreased; and had it not been for the Japanese trade, which in the article gray shirtings has run steadily on inferior goods, there had been almost no necessity for an extended notice of filling. There always will be a market of some kind in China for the lighter or loaded qualities of plain cotton textiles. Their comparative cheapness is their recommendation. It places them within the reach of the very poor, by whom the stuffs are found serviceable in winter for wadded coverings, and during the summer heat as a very respectable portion of its owner's summer wardrobe."

Mildew resulting from the use of china clay and similar substances has frequently cropped out in cottons imported from England. I am informed that as a rule the importers of the fabric bear the loss, though there are some instances in which the manufacturers have come forward and have reimbursed the merchant when mildew has been proved to exist in the stuffs which they have made. An important case brought by a Shanghai merchant against a manufacturer for loss occasioned by mildew and adulteration in his cottons has been decided in favor of the plaintiff in Her Britannic Majesty's Court of Queen's Bench in London. This will no doubt have the effect causing the Lancashire manufacturers to have only "special orders" heavily sized.

THE AMERICANS MUST ADULTERATE (?).

The present consul-general of the United States at Shanghai, Judge Denny, who has written much and ably on this question, when in charge of the consulate at Tientsin, in his annual report for the year 1879 quoted the following very positive extract from a then recent report from one of the British consuls in China, name or place not given:

American manufacturers have as yet steadily set their faces against sizing, facing, and other abominations, but they do not know the Eastern market yet; and if the trade in honest cottons does not show better results in the future than it has in the past, they must eventually have to suit their stuffs to the prices Chinamen will pay or take their goods to another market.

Upon this Consul Denny remarked as follows:

The consul cannot be blamed for this opinion, for it is expressed in the interest of the British merchant. At the same time, I should deeply regret to see American merchants act upon it, for the very day they begin the adulteration of their cloths that day will begin their decline, which will continue until they are driven from this market. The reason is obvious: The United States produces the best quality of cotton in the world; with skilled labor and machinery equal to any, as a legitimate result her cloths must be superior. The English cottons being inferior from adulteration, &c., and with *better sizing*, together with skilled labor and machinery equal to the best, England can produce an inferior quality of goods cheaper than the United States manufacturers can. Hence the only safety for this branch of American trade with China is to force competition for the best quality of cotton goods.

QUALITY ALONE KEEPS THEM IN THE MARKET.

The consul of the United States at Hankow, in his report for 1879 gives the following indorsement of the American consular views in regard to the necessity of preserving the purity of American cotton goods, taken from an English paper in Shanghai. It is partly editorial, and partly from the Calcutta Englishman:

Manchester goods have long ago lost the good name they once enjoyed for being really cotton, since as much as 75 per cent. of many of them is made up of sizing of some sort. Bombay cotton goods are also reported to be falling off in quality, and now we see that the temptation of adulteration has become too strong for the American spinners. A Melbourne merchant writes to a correspondent in England: "We are very sorry to say that our American trade grows daily at the cost of our English department.

Your English manufacturers must employ more labor-saving machinery, and not try to meet this American competition by reducing the wages of your workmen. We have noticed of late that in some cases the Americans, under the pressure of keen competition, are sending goods of inferior quality. Nothing will help the English more than this. *It is quality alone that has put the Americans where they are in these markets—their quality keeps them here;* IF THAT FALLS OFF THEY WILL LOSE THEIR HOLD AT ONCE.

SIZED VS. PURE COTTON GOODS.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Gardner, British consul at Chefoo, for 1879.]

Some of my mercantile friends have in a friendly manner animadverted on my remarks with regard to the sizing of cotton textiles, and have informed me that every autumn there has been a *bona fide* demand for heavily sized shirtings to be used as linings for wadded winter garments, and for mourning dresses worn during the few days in spring when the natives go through the formality of weeping over their family graves. In both these cases cheapness of first cost is more looked to than durability or power to stand washing. I regret that I did not allow sufficient weight to this in my last report. But I am still of opinion that the practice of oversizing our textiles did at one time jeopardize our trade. The demand for these cheaper goods is very limited, while the demand for the better-class goods may become almost unlimited. Fortunately some of our manufacturers have, with regard to shirtings, declined to produce sized goods. And the natives of this province are beginning to distinguish the fabrics of our various manufacturers; and while as yet not evincing much taste for the heaviest shirtings, are again disposed to purchase largely unsized shirtings of the second quality.

On the other hand, drills and sheetings are not used for lining or temporary purposes, so it is essential, in order to meet the requirements of this market, that they should be of good quality; cost seems secondary to durability. Our manufacturers have not grasped this fact. They have produced cheap articles which will not sell here, while the high-priced, better-made American drills and sheetings are finding a steadily increasing market. Our drills decreased from 14,672 pieces in 1878 to 4,177 pieces in 1879, while the American drills increased from 58,208 pieces in 1878 to 68,643 pieces in 1879; the difference in each case being a little over 10,000 pieces. I may mention, as a final hint, that almost all the drills imported here are dyed by the natives with indigo, and consequently no sale can be obtained for drills that will not endure the process.

AMERICAN VS. BRITISH COTTONS AT NINGPO.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Cooper, British consul, dated February 28, 1880.]

The demand for American cotton fabrics is good, but not so great as was anticipated. They are well suited to compete with native cloths, and the heavier class of British goods for boat-sails and unlined garments of all kinds. The inland markets where American drills and sheetings have the best sale are hard to reach. The lighter English shirtings are in demand everywhere for summer wear, for the underclothing of the middle classes, for linings of wadded and unwadded clothes, for coverings for bed-quilts and cushions, and last, though not least, for hangings and wraps at funerals. At the obsequies of persons of any position a dozen and more pieces may be expended. As they become the perquisites of the women and others employed, the quality is of no consideration. Its low price is its great recommendation.

Dyeing with the black indigo of the neighborhood, or blue indigo from Fuhkien, or sapan wood from the south, is a great industry at Ningpo and its vicinity. Quite one-half of the imported plain cottons are dyed before being dispatched to the inland markets.

There is no question but that a certain description of Manchester fabrics have a bad name among the Chinese. This, it appears to me, is owing to the brokers and retailers, who extol its quality in order to obtain larger profits for themselves. The purchasers, should they apply it to unsuitable purposes, have rather their own foolishness and the dealers' powers of deception to blame for their disappointment than the manufacturers' ingenuity. Whether the abuse lavished on these loaded cottons affects their sale is more than I can for certain say. I think not.

CHINISE VS FOREIGN COTTON GOODS.

[Extract from a report by acting British Consul Bullock, dated Chinkiang, February 28, 1880.]

It is often publicly asserted that if it were not for artificial impediments (by which of course, are meant heavy and arbitrary taxation), the demand in China for English cotton piece goods would become practically limitless. This is a pleasing belief with which to flatter ourselves; but there is nothing so far as I can see to justify it. At

the present day imported goods can be carried, and practically are carried, under transit pass, throughout the length and breadth of the land. The import duty on them is 5 per cent. of their value, or thereabouts, in some cases a little more; the transit duty is one-half of the import, and there will perhaps be in some places a tax of from 1 to 2 per cent. levied on the goods after they have reached their final destination and have become separated from the pass. In short, the total duty paid on them, from the time of their entry into China, will be from 7 to 10 per cent. of their value. On such terms as these foreign piece goods can compete very fairly with native-made goods, which no one need imagine are lightly treated in the matter of taxation. In those parts of China where both cotton is produced and cloth is woven, the native goods have a considerable advantage. But there is a large portion of the country which is not so favored, and there, I have no doubt whatever, native goods are often taxed more heavily than foreign ones which are protected by passes. Though the duty charged at each native custom-house or *li-kin* station is ordinarily very light, still the frequency of these barriers on every road and river is most astonishing. I have seen published lists of duties charged on various goods along certain lines of route, where the total of the duties amounted to 15 or 20 per cent. of the values of the goods taxed, though the length of the routes was not great, far shorter, indeed, than the distances which foreign goods are frequently carried under transit pass. Thus in a great part of China there is no reason to fear that the duties on foreign goods are differential duties acting to their disadvantage; and the mere weight of the duties themselves, if rival goods be not more favourably dealt with, is not sufficient to reduce the consumption of our manufactures, as some persons seem to believe, to one-tenth of it would otherwise be. The truth is that, in order to be able to sell 100,000,000 pieces of cotton cloth, where we now sell only 10,000,000, we must discover how to make and lay down in China as cheaply as the Chinese can a very strong and durable article, never mind how rough, uneven, and unsightly, and this there seems to be little doubt the prices of raw cotton and freight will not allow us to do.

THE CHINESE WANT SIZED GOODS.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Bullock, acting British consul at Chinkiang, February 28, 1880.]

Cotton piece goods.—These are, after opium, the most important article in the trade of Chinkiang. The consumption of them for the year is 1,207,716 pieces, valued at £476,000, against 1,013,014 pieces in 1878. The following tables show the quantities imported of the principal kinds of cotton goods for the years 1878 and 1879:

Articles.	1878.	1879.
	Pieces.	*Pieces.*
Gray shirtings	644, 850	813, 468
White shirtings	24, 608	33, 643
T-cloths	175, 630	179, 265
Turkey red cloths	15, 523	24, 310
Chintzes and furnitures	12, 455	17, 645
English drills	63, 725	39, 620
American drills	9, 735	24, 285
American sheetings	.....	10, 219

Comparing the two columns, it will be seen that there is a larger import in the latter year of every kind of piece goods except English drills, which have decreased 24,000 pieces, although American drills have increased 12,000. There is at the same time a pretty large consumption of American sheetings, which appear for the first time in the returns. Notwithstanding the eminently satisfactory state of the trade taken as a whole, this supplanting of English by American goods is a matter worthy of serious consideration. Newspapers and consular reports have often warned British manufacturers that the practice of using unlimited sizing is slowly but surely undermining their trade. It is difficult, however, to believe that every one understands the true interests of Manchester except the Manchester men themselves; and one is inclined to seek for some other reason than that generally assigned for the great development of the American trade in piece goods at our expense. I do not for a moment doubt that the ultimate buyers and wearers of English cottons in the far distant up-country districts, to which goods are now carried under transit pass, occasionally are terribly disappointed when they submit their purchases to the test of washing; and those in the neighborhood of the open ports, who are better acquainted with the nature of our cotton wares, from time to time must be disagreeably astonished by discovering that shirtings can be loaded with a yet larger quantity of filling, and can contain less cotton than they had before deemed possible. Still these will be comparatively rare

cases. The great majority of the purchasers, I imagine, and certainly the dealers who buy direct from foreigners, know well enough what they are doing. Every one is aware, or might be aware, that British firms in China are at any moment ready to sell or take orders for unsized goods. One merchant in particular has assured me that he has time after time made Chinese dealers examine his samples through a magnifying glass, and has pointed out to them the superiority of the more lightly sized articles. But the answer is always the same, the dealers cannot, or will not, pay the price at which the merchant can afford to sell the better qualities. This, no doubt, is the true explanation of the nature of our trade in piece goods; and the competition of American goods must, I am afraid, be ascribed not to a blind unwillingness on the part of Englishmen to make honest calico, but to the fact that the manufacturers in the United States can at the present moment turn out, as cheaply as the Lancashire men, certain classes of strong goods in which the cost of the cotton used is relatively large, and the cost of the labor employed in the manufacture relatively small.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF WU-HU.

[Extract from a report dated March 31, 1880, from the acting British consul, Mr. Oxenham.]

The total import of cotton goods has decreased from 134,777 pieces to 119,926. The chief fall is in T-cloths: 50,400 pieces to 38,600 pieces; in English drills, 7,400 to 3,490: English jeans, 4,300 to 2,400. There is an increase of 3,300 pieces in gray shirtings: of 500 in American drills; and of 600 in American sheetings. The proportion of increase in gray shirtings has not fulfilled anticipations. This is said to be due to the fact that the reduction of prices has not continued sufficiently to induce more distant centers of population, geographically belonging to Wu-Hu, to abandon old markets and start afresh here. Prices fell from 60 cash (2¾*d.*) a foot in 1877 to 50 cash (2¼*d.*) in 1878, a price which has for the most part been maintained during 1879. A more general reason is the quality of such goods, especially gray shirtings. These are chiefly worn by inhabitants of towns employed in sedentary occupations, their superior cheapness and appearance compensating for inferior durability. Countrymen and coolies, and all engaged in rough outdoor work, prefer the native cloth from Hankow and Nanking, costing from 30 to 38 cash a foot, but only half the breadth of foreign stuff. It is very strong and durable and will last four or five years against one year for shirtings. Especially does it endure well the stone-banging processes of Chinese washing, which fray to pieces in a year the more fragile foreign fabric. Shirtings are, however, used by all classes for the purpose of lining winter padded garments. A fabric, which at its best is fragile, is not likely to increase its sale by any process which diminishes its durability. This sizing undoubtedly does, and the practice has much injured the repute of shirtings among the thrifty and suspicious agricultural population. They complain greatly, but the large Chinese firms connive at and even encourage the practice, as it enables them to purchase wholesale at a cheaper rate. A stout strong fabric as durable as native cloth, but whiter, more tasty, and broader, at 2*d.* to 1½*d.* a foot could not fail to sell largely. As it is, T-cloths and drills were being bought largely, but their place is being taken by American drills and sheetings, which are stouter, whiter, and as cheap; and never having been sized have yet a reputation to lose. The price of such goods, 70 to 60 cash per foot for T-cloths and 100 to 80 for drills, is too high to compete successfully to any large extent with native cloth; and a suitable fabric equally useful for town and country is still a desideratum for the Chinese market.

AMERICAN VS. BRITISH COTTONS AT HANKOW.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Alabaster, British consul, dated April 1880.]

The import trade has during the year largely increased. In cotton goods the returns show 2,510,241 pieces against 1,682,938 pieces last year; and it may be some comfort to those who are under the impression that American goods are driving English manufactures out of the market, that 40,496 pieces of American sheetings only appear among the number.

A year ago it seemed by the returns that the demands for American goods were largely increasing, accompanied by a proportionate decrease in that for English manufactures, and it was the general opinion that this was consequent on the excessive use of china clay, &c., which had been introduced in Manchester.

Further inquiry has, however, shown that the large increase noticed in American cloths was due partly to overstocks at home, and partly to an attempt to gain possession of the market here by American importers; and that the decrease which was noticeable in Manchester goods was due to the fact that for years the trade had been unprofitable, and the importation had consequently become restricted by the failure or retirement of a number of persons concerned in it.

It is quite a mistake to think that America can produce so far better goods than we can or that they do so more cheaply.

American manufacturers having hitherto devoted their attention entirely to their home markets, what surplus parcels of goods have found their way out here have been naturally of stout make, suited to stand rough usage and continual washing, whereas the English goods which come out, made to suit the market, are generally of the lower qualities which do just as well for the purposes to which they are put by the Chinese and can be supplied at small cost.

Neither English nor American cottons will wear so well as the stout hand-made native goods but for covering the wadded quilts, lining wadded clothes for wearing during the limited periods of mourning, and the innumerable other purposes to which the Chinese put cotton goods, which neither involve washing or hard usage, the lightest class of goods are amply sufficient, and as they can be made to look as well and cost about half the price of first-class goods, the preference the Chinese show for so-called adulterated Manchester goods is perfectly comprehensible.

By and by, when Americans are driven to look abroad for their subsistence, we shall have reason to fear their competition, but at present Americans of ability find it far easier to make a fortune in their own country than in the poorer field China affords, and their serious attention is therefore directed homewards rather than abroad.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF NEW CHWANG.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Allen, British consul, dated May 1, 1880.]

Shirtings, taking gray, white, and dyed varieties together, showed an increased import of 43,977 pieces as compared with the import of 1878. Mahommedan cloths, twills, cottonades, and dimities, arrived, too, in increased quantities, but a decline is noticeable in every other kind of cotton piece goods. American sheetings were preferred to English T-cloths, as they are thicker and of better quality, but the latter were in fair demand in July and August. Some 60,000 more pieces of American over English sheetings were imported. American drills and jeans also came in equally larger quantities as compared with English.

English manufactures were brought by the first steamers which reached the port on the 27th and 28th March, but little work could be done for days in consequence of the dangerous masses of ice which were floating about. When business fairly began, however, the demands were good and rates were high, although the reckless bartering of some native importers caused them to fall off afterwards. A good rate of exchange kept up with Shanghai prevented very severe losses in the year's transactions. It was reported that the Coreans, who generally buy a fair amount of shirtings, were last year supplied from other sources, most probably from Japan, and hence goods taken to the Corean gate were left in large quantities unsold. The rains which fell in the autumn interfered greatly with inland traffic, and consequently in the import market.

Long ells, Russian cloth, and lusters, among woolen goods, show an increase; 170 more pieces of medium cloth were, too, imported in 1879. A quantity of lusters was sent in October to the Corean gate, a rumor of reviving trade with Corea having arisen. Camlets and lastings cannot be in much request, as the hot weather does not last long, but the latter are sometimes wanted for short jackets and shoes. Average prices for the principal cotton and woollen goods are here given:

	Taels.
Gray shirtings:	
6 pounds	0.95 to 1.10
7 pounds	1.18 to 1.45
8¼ pounds	1.35 to 1.60
9 to 12 pounds	1.80 to 2.60
White shirtings	1.72 to 2.10
T-cloths:	
6 pounds	0.87 to 0.95
7 pounds	1.01 to 1.27
8 pounds	1.22 to 1.56
English drills	1.81 to 2.10
American drills	2.61 to 2.80
English sheetings	1.92 to 2.33
American sheetings	2.40 to 3.15
Turkey red cloths	1.35 to ——
Camlets	11.70 to ——
Long ells	6.40 to ——
Lastings	9.55 to 10.50
Lusters	3.05 to 3.30

IMPORTS OF COTTON GOODS AT TIENTSIN.

[Extract from a report by Mr. Bristow, acting British consul, dated July 20, 1880.]

The import of American drills, sheetings, and jeans continues to increase rapidly, and in 1879, for the first time for some years, the import of English goods of the same class shows an increment, as will be seen by the tables below:

	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	Increase.
Drills:	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*
English	272,409	120,005	61,662	145,780	84,118
American	104,366	90,500	113,589	259,380	145,791
Sheetings:					
English	128,350	39,257	20,045	36,445	16,400
American		144,786	187,105	409,442	222,337
Jeans:					
English	164,835	98,560	30,010	61,833	31,823
American		24,414	26,575	27,030	455

INCREASE IN THE IMPORTS OF AMERICAN.

[Extract from a report of the general trade of China, by Mr. Grosvenor to Sir T. Wade, British minister to China.]

During the last few years the demand for American cotton fabrics has been so steadily increasing that the importation of them for 1879 amounted to nearly five times that of 1876.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN COTTONS IN COREA.

[Extract from a report by the British consul at New Chang, 1881.]

Moreover, the Coreans, who formerly got all their supplies from New Chang, have opened the two ports of Fushan and Yunghshing to the Japanese, who import thither a considerable quantity or foreign goods. Mr. Acting Consul Spence, who visited both ports as interpreter to his Royal Highness the Duke of Genoa, last summer, mentions having found large quantities of English and American cottons in the bazaar at Fushan.

NATIVE CHINA CLOTHS.

[Extract from a report by the British acting consul at Ishang, dated March 31, 1881.]

A very small amount of the total foreign import is consumed locally; the ultimate destination of nearly all is Szechuen. *The people here, as they are in the other parts of China that I have visited, are clad in home stuffs.* The short staple Chinese cotton only spins into coarse yarns of a size corresponding to our No. 16 to 20 yarn, and this, when woven without admixture of more size or paste than is necessary to stiffen the warp, makes an admirable cloth, coarse, but stout, exactly suited to a poor agricultural population. It will patch and repatch, and hold out in all weathers. Although the ordinary Chinaman, when living, does not find himself comfortably clothed in light-weight English goods, he has no hesitation in shrouding his dead in them, and, in time, a Chinese outfit for the other world will be here, as it is elsewhere in China, clothes of T-cloths, and money, and an opium pipe of paper. The prospect of a local demand for our goods is not affected, therefore, by the excellence of the native cloth.

AMERICAN HIGH-PRICED VS. BRITISH CHEAP COTTONS.

[Extract from a report by the British consul at Hankow, dated March 15, 1881.]

The net import of gray shirtings, of drills and brocades, and damasks fall short of last year, but the deficiency is more than made up by the increase in white shirtings, T-cloths, sheetings, chintzes, and velvets; and it is more surprising that it is accompanied by an enormous increase in the import of cotton, plentiful crops, and a large importation of the raw material being generally compensated by falling off in the demand for manufactures. It is worth noting also that though there is an apparent falling off in the quantity of drills imported, the deficiency is not so large as shown in the tables, some of the goods which appear under the headings of sheetings being

what have hitherto figured in the returns as drills; and it is further accounted for, that at one time during the year the Shanghai market was absolutely bare as regarded American drills, of which there were only 184,188 pieces imported there against 530,761 in 1879, and 496,798 pieces in 1878.

It is interesting here also to note that although the American cloths are as well liked as ever, and as they well deserve to be, it is beginning to be seen that they cannot profitably compete with our products, and the large imports stimulated by the idea current, a year or two ago, that English manufactures had so deteriorated that the Chinese would not take them, and that a combined effort would lead to their being supplanted by American products, are being discontinued.

Fraud is never permanently successful, and when and where size and clay are used to make inferior goods pass for first-class is certain to result in the avoidance by the once deceived dealer of that class of goods in future. But it is a mistake to think that flimsy fabrics have not their uses as well as substantial ones; for many purposes they are better adapted, and the native consumer, with his eyes wide open, will prefer the clayed cloth when it answers all his purposes equally well with one all cotton.

I have, however, heard this year complaints that the chemicals of late used in Manchester to fix the size interfere with the subsequent dying with some of the shirtings imported, and it would be well for manufacturers to bear this in mind, though in some cases loose texture is rather a recommendation in Chinese eyes, as it facilitates the application of their rude system of dyes. The presence of chemicals in the cloth which prevent it absorbing the indigo will prove a fatal objection in many instances.

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF CHINA.

[A report written in July, 1878, by Mr. Henderson, then United States consul at Amoy.]

In China there are supposed to be 400,000,000 people. All of these clothe themselves principally with cotton. Allowing 20 yards to each person, 8,000,000,000 yards are required annually to cover their nakedness. The import of all cotton goods to China in 1866 was 641,760,960 yards, or enough, if it was all used for clothing, to supply 32,088,040 people.

The immense balance, 7,358,239,040 yards, wanted for 368,000,000 people is made of native home-spun woof and foreign warp, or wholly of native home-spun yarn, and woven on hand-looms that have come down from prehistoric times. Admitting that modern spindles and looms can produce a better article and lay it down in China, for less money, foreign cloth must inevitably displace the native fabric with all but the few who for want of better employment will continue to spin and weave their own, a number already small comparatively in the tea-producing districts of the country, where a more agreeable and profitable labor than weaving and spinning is found for the women and children in picking and preparing tea. Who is to supply China with the cotton goods necessary to meet her large and rapidly increasing demand for foreign fabrics during the long years that must elapse before the slow march of progress can bring about the introduction of modern cotton-mills under conditions that will exclude the further sale of foreign goods is a question of the first importance to the merchants and manufacturers of the United States, and indeed the commercial interests of the whole country.

It is believed that the weight of advantages for ultimate success in competing for this trade is on the side of the United States unless, indeed, India should enter the field and carry away the palm in the not near future; but at present there are many points in England's favor. Since the American war she has held this trade almost entirely in her own hands, and her merchants, always zealous workers for the promotion of England's commercial interests along with their own prosperity, have naturally preferred and pushed their own goods. Her better, ampler, and cheaper means for transportation, owing to her wiser system of navigation laws, lower rates of interest, cheaper labor and more convenient and perfect arrangements for exchange, are advantages which cannot be overestimated.

But the character of the goods they have supplied has in itself done but little to improve the native opinion of foreign cottons. Nothing but the general advantage which machine-made goods possess over those made by hand could have produced the steady increase in demand for the former that has been going on. The few efforts which have been made during the past two years to re-introduce the better American cloth are already producing in some parts of China indications of the change in our favor which seems likely to take place. Our manufacturers are nearer to the cotton fields of the South, and will continue to become more so as their mills are extended into the South and West.

The price of coal is steadily advancing in England, while it is decreasing in the United States—an important consideration in view of the general tendency to adopt steam-power for working machinery of all kinds.

In the price of breadstuffs, beef, fruits, and vegetables, house-rents, and all other necessaries for operatives, America has the decided advantage. Aside from the matters of State and Federal taxation of machinery and materials, and those we have mentioned, England would seem to possess no advantages that should prevent us from turning out a better article of cotton goods and at lower prices than she can.

But before our advantages can be put to practical account in the China trade there are many minor conditions which need to be altered; more careful attention to details of the trade, its requirements and peculiarities at different ports and localities, will be necessary on the part of manufacturers at home and merchants and factors in the East.

The weight, quality, and texture of goods wanted in different sections of the empire for different purposes and at different seasons of the year, the width of pieces suitable for making, to the best advantage, garments of the shape and dimensions worn by Chinese, the lengths that people are accustomed to and desire for their various uses, are matters that cannot be longer overlooked.

Heavy, strong, closely woven materials are necessary in winter throughout Central and Southern China, and thin stuffs of loose texture, for coolness in summer, always combining the qualities of strength and durability.

The matter of widths is doubtless one of great importance; if pieces are an inch too narrow to answer the purpose they are wanted for, of course they will not do at all; and if they are an inch wider than is necessary, so much cloth is wasted in the cutting, and this waste a Chinaman is unwilling to pay for.

There is, however, a question in the minds of foreigners who have examined the subject, whether it is better to attempt the widths of native cloths or adopt those of foreign goods now partially known, which are often about double the former. The native widths, apparently used for the same purposes, are so various, ranging all the way from 15 to 25 inches, and often differing but slightly as a mere check on imitation, that I am utterly unable to solve the enigma and say what widths would be most likely to prove a success. The widths of the foreign piece goods now imported seem to have been established with a view to doubling the narrow widths which were found most commonly in use by the Cantonese, and which had been probably adopted for the sake of convenience in weaving. If the looms of New England need widening before they can produce the required widths of cloth, by all means let this be done or others be provided. The lengths of American piece goods, too, have been frequently objected to.

It has been often asserted that heavily sized cottons take dye more evenly than pure cloth, and are therefore more popular in white shirtings and the like, which are colored for clothing; but from all I can find out I am not satisfied that there is anything in the story. If clay, starch, &c., were really necessary for dying purposes, they could doubtless be introduced into the dye-tubs of China, without bringing them from foreign countries and paying for them as cotton. Likely there is more in the idea that the spurious matter found in Manchester goods affords the China buyer an opportunity to indulge his chief national trait—the love for cheating and deception—when he comes to pass them into other and less expert hands of small dealers in the country; and no doubt the sizing they contain assists the dyer, who finishes off his cloths by rolling them under the weight of an enormous bowlder between waxed horse skins, until they shine like the polish of linen or grass cloth, to palm off the brilliancy of appearance for the substance of a genuine article. It at least gives goods a fullness and stiffness of feeling and appearance which Chinese seem to like.

There is also much importance in having suitable marks and names for good brands both in English and Chinese, and the standard of quality should be carefully kept up when once the goods become known. This is proved by the popularity of American marks in the North and the disposition of English factories to counterfeit them. More care is needed in packing and shipping. The highest possible pressing is desirable in order to reduce freights, and bales should have a covering that will secure them against injury by water or the rough handling to which they are exposed *en route* to their distant destinations.

Quick, cheap, and direct transportation that will insure the arrival of goods at times when they are wanted and expected are conditions essential to success. The Pacific Mail and Peninsular and Oriental steamers afford the only adequate means in operation for meeting this great want.

But the carriage by rail across the continent or the Isthmus of Panama raises freights by the Pacific route to almost prohibitory figures. There is yet another serious objection to this route for shipments to Amoy or adjacent ports which should and doubtless will ere long be done away with. All goods coming by Pacific Mail or Peninsular and Oriental steamers from San Francisco bound for Amoy are carried three hundred miles beyond, passing in sight of our harbor (the best, most central, and easiest of access in China), landed in Hong Kong, and brought back by English coasting steamers at a cost almost equal to the original freight.

The agents of the Pacific mail steamers at Hong Kong recently directed the City

of Peking and City of Tokio to call at Amoy for tea on the return voyage to San Francisco provided sufficient inducement should be offered in the way of cargo. But the disparity in rates between the Pacific and Suez routes was too great to permit inducements to an extent beyond the few favorite chops that would be sent to Hong Kong by coast steamer for quick transit to New York by the former route regardless of any difference in freights; and it was discovered that unless the steamers were to make monthly trips the year round they would not be entitled to the benefit of the reduced special rates of tonnage dues for monthly steamers—*dues* on one steamer once in four months—so that no small amount of freight would pay them for entering.

The tea trade that exists and should exist between the ports of this district and San Francisco in summer, their immense sugar business with Japan in winter, and the cotton and other goods that should come from San Francisco here at all times, ought certainly to offer sufficient inducements to justify the Pacific mail steamers in calling at Amoy once a month the year round. Since the recent discovery that American lead from San Francisco can be laid down in China at prices defying all competition the quantity of this article needed for the Amoy, Foochow, and Formosa tea districts should alone furnish considerable cargo for the port direct.

If official action is needed to assist the scheme it should be taken at once. The Chinese Government could certainly afford to grant still further exemptions to these or any and all steamers stopping here *en voyage* from the eastward if by doing so it could secure for itself the benefits which are in effect now conferred exclusively on the British port of Hong Kong. But this matter of transportation can never be right until the States of the Northwest, Texas, and the Southwest have their share of factories connected with the ocean by the Northern and Southern Pacific Railroads or the great commercial climax of the century has been achieved, the construction of the Darien Canal. If through freights by railroads and Pacific steamers cannot be reduced to a scale that will admit of shipment by that route, a line of steamers from New York to China *via Suez* direct is the next thing to be desired, and there would seem to be no reason why it should not be started at once. Sailing vessels cannot be relied on to land cotton goods in China when they are wanted for the changes of season, and the uncertainty of their voyages as to time conflicts with every arrangement for the sale of goods and the payment of bills drawn against them, which must be met when they arrive or fall due whether the goods have come to hand or not. If, however, we cannot arrange to do this work ourselves, let the fifteen or twenty British steamers which are annually cleared at this port for New York with teas paid for in dollars be induced to return direct to China laden with our cotton goods, supplies, and machinery to exchange for more tea, instead of being allowed to cross the Atlantic to London or Liverpool in order to dock for repairs and hunt up a return cargo. American lead having now cut out their principal dependence for outward cargoes from London, this suggestion will doubtless be considered. The advantages to be derived from such an arrangement in the matter of transportation both outward and homeward may readily be perceived, and the immense balance of trade that stands against us at this port would speedily disappear.

But undoubtedly the best thing that could be done for American commerce would be to alter our navigation laws and throw the ocean open to American labor and enterprise.

A policy that practically excludes American seamen and capitalists from our foreign carrying trade or drives them to the flags of other nations, causing a direct loss of taxes to the States where vessels are owned, and of tonnage dues and consular fees to the United States, while thousands of able-bodied men sit about the curbstones of our great cities whining for labor and bread; which forces us to pay $30,000,000 annually to the vessels of other nations for doing our carrying, in order that a few ship-yards in the United States may be protected from a fair and healthy competition, must be pronounced a failure.

Arrangements for doing our exchange business direct and without the necessity of paying large commissions and interest to the bankers of London are much wanted; but no improvement in this respect need be looked for so long as the difference in rates of interest in England and the United States continues to compensate for the expense and inconvenience of conducting our exchange through foreign banks, or until an American banking house of high standing establishes itself at the leading ports of Shanghai and Hong-Kong. Strange as it may seem, the Hong-Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the only regular establishment of the kind in Amoy, is not prepared to draw on or exchange with New York.

Another great want to American commerce with the East is the Pacific cable to cheapen and quicken telegraphic communication.

Lastly, cheapness of goods is the first and greatest requisite for the China trade.

The high prices which hitherto have been demanded for American cotton goods would alone have been sufficient to exclude them from competition with English goods. But from a comparison of present prices of English goods and some samples of American cloth prepared for the Shanghai market and sent to this port, it appears

that the latter can be sold almost if not quite as cheaply as the former, taking no account of the sizing, which, if considered, would throw the advantage to our goods.

On this side we want more American merchants and agents of modern business ideas and habits, whose nationality is American in reality, whose interests are in American commerce, and whose wishes and sympathies are for its success, exercising the necessary energy and ability to properly display the superiority of American goods. Many of the Americans I have met in this country gave out the appearance of possessing but little education beyond what they had picked up in some English tea hong. They know nothing and care nothing about American institutions, resources, or commerce disconnected with the tea trade, and often are given to too much of that toadyism to English ideas and prejudices which marks a peculiar type of the *civis Americanus* to be fit representatives of American houses. Until last year, when Messrs. Russell & Co. opened a house here, there had not for some fifteen years been an American firm in Amoy or Formosa, although the export of tea to the United States amounts to more than $3,000,000 annually, or about two-thirds the entire export. The English houses have pretty strictly confined their operations to tea, opium, sugar, English piece goods, and yarn, and Indian cotton and yarn. I am not aware that any effort has been made to bring to this port and sell American cotton goods of the texture and dimensions used by the people of Amoy and Formosa. Save in some drills, and a few sorts suitable for the north of China, but not salable in this market, nothing, I believe, has been attempted until recently, when J. L. Anderson, esq., received a consignment of gray shirtings and T-cloths from Messrs. John Caswell & Co., of New York. These latter were prepared for the Shanghai market, and although time enough has not yet elapsed for giving them a fair trial, and they bear prices slightly above the English sized goods, some sales have already been effected. There can be no doubt but goods of the proper kinds can be manufactured in the United States, and that they would sell readily in South and Central China when once they become known, if laid down at low enough prices. It is understood that Messrs. Russell & Co. and J. L. Anderson, esq., Messrs. Ellis & Co., and some other of the English houses who find it next to impossible to longer sell Manchester cottons at a profit, are making arrangements to try American goods. But what is first and most needed is a good cotton expert to thoroughly look into the demand and give his correspondents at home such information in detail as may be necessary to enable them to supply it.

There are important movements in the cotton-goods trade of this port now going on which deserve to be closely watched by those concerned in American goods. The customs returns and account sales of piece goods and cotton yarn for last year show a wonderful falling off in the former and a proportionate increase in the consumption of the latter. This change indicates unusual activity among the hand looms of the country, where the miserable India yarn that composes the bulk of the increase is used for warp in a coarse, cheap article, that is made up for the Formosa trade. It does not necessarily follow, however, that this change is permanent, or that the native cloth can compete so closely with the foreign in supplying the demand which has been created for the latter as this fact might seem to indicate; it may be largely due to efforts on the part of cotton guilds to reduce the prices demanded for Manchester stuffs, doubtless mainly brought on by the defection which has been gradually growing up towards English goods on account of their bad quality, and the recent rise in prices for them at home. The opportunity should be availed of by Americans to introduce a good, cheap article of the proper texture and dimensions to capture and hold the trade. It is believed that the kinds wanted are the very ones that can be manufactured at the best comparative advantage in the New England mills, to wit, the coarser grades, corresponding with English gray shirtings, white shirtings, T-cloths, and American drills.

The total value of cotton piece goods entered at all the ports in this district for the year 1876 was $1,337,233.

NATIVE HOME-MADE CLOTH.

The great mass of the people, the laboring classes of the interior, wear nothing but native homespun; and no doubt they have substantial reasons for preferring it to English cloth, even though it costs almost double per square foot what anything foreign that they have ever seen does. If the looms of America can successfully imitate this cloth, or make as good an article with all its essential points, so that it can be laid down here at lower figures, I can see no reason why a trade should not soon be built up at the ports of Central China equal in extent to her present total importation of cotton piece goods. This homespun is manufactured wholly of native raw cotton, much of which is carried to this and neighboring non-treaty ports in junks, so that no record is kept of the quantity imported. Although the threads are rough and uneven, they are composed of pure cotton and possess great strength and durability—essential qualities in clothing for people who are constantly carrying some object or another on their shoulders; for frail, thin stuffs would not long withstand the wear and

tear they are subject to. This kind is usually made by the women of the family for the use of their male relatives and themselves, and is now rarely found for sale in the larger market towns on the sea-coast. It is woven in widths varying from 15 to 25 inches.

There is, however, a considerable quantity of cloth now being made in the cities, towns, and villages skirting the inner arms and shores of Amoy harbor, which is composed of English or India yarn mixed with Shanghai cotton, the former being used for warp.

There is in the minds of the people a peculiar virtue in Shanghai cotton. They claim that an equal weight of foreign cotton spun and woven in the same manner will not give as much warmth as Shanghai cotton. The latter is therefore mixed with the India or English yarn, which lays down much cheaper than the former can be made, in order to secure the desired warmth. This mixture has latterly, owing to its comparative cheapness, pretty well driven the homespun from the market, having left nothing but the very coarsest grades. It seems to be mostly woven in pieces 21 inches wide by 28 feet long, containing just enough material for an ordinary Chinese jacket and trousers. Excepting a limited number of people about the open ports, who have come to know and prefer the foreign article on account of its cheapness and better appearance, either native homespun or mixed cloth is worn by all classes at all times and for all purposes; and for winter underclothing one of these kinds is used by rich and poor alike throughout Central and Southern China, where no fires are kept to warm by, save the small baskets of charcoal carried about in the hands; and the warm folds of cotton cloth, piled thickness on thickness over the back and shoulders, comprise their only protection against the cold winds of the north.

Is this idea as to the superior warmth of Shanghai cotton a mere fancy, or is it an opinion grown out of the effect produced by the spurious matter found in English goods, or is it true, as they claim, that it is really a better non-conductor than cotton from other parts of the world?

There are a few kinds, medium in quality, woven in 18 and 20 inch widths by 27-feet lengths, composed wholly of India or foreign yarn, now being made up for the Formosa market. The latter two sorts are those with which foreign cloth is at present in competition.

The summer material of all kinds is loosely put together for the sake of coolness, while that used in winter is woven closely in order to secure the greatest warmth.

I append the following particulars of some of the principal kinds:

Native white shirtings, Pien Pa Kim Jiong Pa.—First quality, 21¼ inches by 28 feet, 2 pounds, $1. Shanghai cotton and Bombay yarn, much used by middle and upper classes of both sexes for underclothing, colored long coats, and jackets; also for coverlids. Second quality, same dimensions, weight, and uses, 95 cents—Shanghai and Bombay.

Native gray shirting, Pon Siek Kim Jiong Pa.—First quality, 21¼ inches by 28 feet, 2 pounds, 95 cents. Shanghai cotton and Bombay yarn, very much used by upper and middle classes of both sexes for clothing of all kinds, especially for warm underwear in winter, coverlids, and men's stockings. Second quality, same dimensions, weight, and uses, 85 cents, Shanghai cotton and Bombay yarn.

Pon Kih Pa, 20½ inches by 27 feet, 1 pound 9 ounces, 65 cents. Bombay yarn exported to Formosa for clothing.

O Pa, 18 inches by 27 feet, 1 pound 7 ounces, 55 cents. Foreign yarn and Shanghai cotton, much used by middle and lower classes of both sexes, for linings, underclothing, jackets, and trousers. Largely exported to Formosa.

Chih Pa, 18 inches by 27 feet, 1 pound 5 ounces, 50 cents. Bombay yarn, same uses as O Pa, largely exported to Formosa.

To Ki Pa, 25 inches by 32 feet, 3 pounds, 80 cents. Shanghai cotton and Bombay yarn, used by farmers and villagers for clothing.

A duplicate of this dispatch, with samples of the cloths described, will be sent forward by the next opportunity.

I have, &c.,

J. J. HENDERSON, *Consul.*

AMERICAN COTTONS FOR BELGIUM.

[Extract from a report by Consul Wilson, of Brussels, 1879.]

There is one article of our production the exports of which to this country, both in its raw and manufactured forms, I believe might with proper effort be greatly extended. While it is universally admitted that the United States is the great cotton-producing country of the world, it is a singular fact that in 1878 Belgium purchased from France raw cotton to the value of 16,355,000 francs, and from the German Zoll-

verein to the value of 24,769,000 francs; while her direct importation from the United States only amounted to 8,794,000 francs.

She bought from England in 1878 of cotton goods and thread to the amount of 57,905,000 francs, and from the Zollverein to the value of 23,744,000 francs; but not a single yard from the United States.

From personal inquiry among the dealers in these goods, I find that the bleached and unbleached cotton goods of American manufacture which reach this country through England and Germany are regarded as superior in quality; but as they are never sold so cheaply as the same class of goods of English or German manufacture, dealers are unable to realize large sales of them, and consequently continue to purchase English and German fabrics though of admitted inferior quality.

There can be but little doubt that we can furnish Belgium with both cotton and cotton goods as cheaply as either of these countries, and that with proper effort these large importations of this merchandise could be diverted from them, and made to swell the balance of our now prosperous foreign trade.

EGYPTIAN COTTON.

[Extract from a report by Consul-General Farman, dated November 1, 1876, and published in Commercial Relations for that year.]

The most important product of Egypt is cotton. For the last four years the exportation of cotton from the port of Alexandria has amounted in value to nearly three times that of the total of all other exports.

Cotton is said to have been introduced into Egypt in 1820 by a Turkish officer named Maho Bey, who cultivated a few plants in his garden at Cairo. Two years afterward, under the direction of one Jumel, a Frenchman, 30,000 quintals were produced in Lower Egypt. It was not, however, until the epoch of the civil war in the United States that the cultivation of cotton became the most important branch of agriculture.

Its exportation increased from 600,000 quintals in 1860 to 2,000,000 quintals in 1865. In 1866 it decreased to 1,300,000, and from that time till 1870 there was a gradual decrease, amounting in all to about 50 per cent. In the year 1872 it regained its former importance, and in the year 1875 the exportations were 2,365,000 quintals.

Soon after the commencement of the cultivation of cotton in Egypt a successful attempt was made to introduce the sea-island cotton, but by the continued use of the seed produced from the Egyptian plants the cotton soon deteriorated so as to be of little more value than the *Mako*, or ordinary cotton. The result is that the *Mako* is now the only kind cultivated.

The Egyptian cotton for the year 1873 was found by the English spinners to be of inferior quality.

This is said to have been the result of defective irrigation, the mixing of seed of different and inferior grades, and also from the mixing by exporters with the good grades the second crop, which is produced in some places from the same plants.

This second crop is produced by cutting the plants off near the ground and sowing on the land "bersim" (a kind of clover). In this manner, besides the bersim, a second crop of cotton is produced, which is, however, very inferior, being short and tender.

Measures have been taken by the government which are expected to result in the production of better cotton.

The following is a table showing the quantity, destination, and average annual price at Liverpool of cotton exported from Alexandria for the last ten years, ending September 10, 1875:

Years.	England.	France.	Austria.	Italy.	Russia.	Sundry.	Total number of bales.	Average price in Liverpool, in pence.
1865–'66	257, 808	36, 233	14, 135	1, 372	2	5, 358	314, 908	21¼
1866–'67	234, 586	32, 996	22, 807	250	.....	157	290, 796	16½
1867–'68	184, 118	32, 674	24, 525	1, 382	.....	117	242, 816	10[illegible]
1868–'69	188, 004	35, 519	18, 076	7, 048	101	88	248, 836	12[illegible]
1869–'70	168, 110	23, 328	9, 758	15, 546	.....	275	217, 017	12[illegible]
1870–'71	242, 481	14, 343	22, 753	29, 246	.....	484	309, 307	[illegible]
1871–'72	270, 139	17, 545	12, 294	24, 123	1, 861	3, 055	329, 017	10[illegible]
1872–'73	263, 048	32, 405	10, 967	18, 487	12, 498	1, 256	338, 661	9[illegible]
1873–'74	288, 794	55, 816	13, 509	17, 676	12, 414	4, 601	392, 810	[illegible]
1874–'75	282, 331	28, 079	6, 741	14, 956	18, 170	2, 721	352, 998	[illegible]
ANNUAL AVERAGE.								
Bales*	237, 942	30, 894	15, 556	13, 008	4, 505	1, 811	.....	.....

*A bale is equal to about 600 pounds.

THE COTTON INDUSTRY OF GERMANY, ENGLAND, THE UNITED STATES, AND INDIA.

Great interest is being manifested at present in the commercial circles throughout the German Empire respecting the vigorous efforts that are being made to revive the drooping cotton industry by the adoption of the protective system. Many interesting speeches have been made in the various chambers of commerce, and not a few able articles have appeared in the different periodicals, urging upon the imperial government the adoption of the protective system as the only salvation for the manufacturing interests of Germany.

That a nation is rich in proportion to its various industries is a fact which is being constantly demonstrated to the world; still a nation may abound in industrial pursuits and yet be miserably poor, unless those industries are prosperous; and a nation must also constantly become poorer the more it draws upon foreign markets for that which it can produce at home.

Upon this subject, Mr. Gelly, a director of one of the largest weaving and spinning associations in Germany, recently gave to the public an interesting comparative statement relating to the productive proportion of England, Germany, America, and India in the cotton industry. The comparisons made in this statement show startling facts concerning the backward strides of England and Germany, and the onward march of America and India in the manufacture of cotton stuffs.

In drawing a parallel between the industrial interests of England and Germany, the following figures were produced: In Germany, 44 per cent. of the population are engaged in agricultural pursuits, and 37 per cent. depend upon the manufacturing industries for employment and support. In England, 21 per cent. are engaged in the former and 51 per cent. in the latter pursuits. Germany, including her immediate territories, possesses 4,700,000 cotton spindles, each one of which produces 24.9 kilos per year. Great Britain possesses 39,500,000 spindles, from each of which are worked only 15 kilos per annum. In the whole of Europe, excluding England, there are only 19,603,000 spindles employed, while in America there are about 10,000,000 in operation; so that England has more spindles working than both Europe and America combined. In Germany most of the cotton used is of the coarsest and cheapest sort, while in England generally the most valuable and finest is consumed.

There are 43,000,000 inhabitants in Germany, and to every one hundred of these there are 10.93 spindles in operation. England has 33,000,000 inhabitants, and to every one hundred of these there are 119.70 spindles.

It is generally acknowledged that eighteen spindles can consume cotton enough to supply one hundred persons. This being the case, Germany still requires 3,000,000 more spindles in order to furnish her home consumption. In England about 5,000,000 are enough for the home consumption, so that the cotton industry of that nation has 34,000,000 spindles with which to supply the wants of other countries.

Between 1845 and 1875 the number of spindles in England augmented 20,000,000. In the month of January, 1870, England spun and wove cotton to the amount of $27,500,000; linen to the amount of $3,050,000; cloth and woolen goods generally to the amount of $9,000,000; jute, $670,000; silk stuffs, $1,112,000; making a total of $41,332,000. In the month of January, 1878, there was a small shrinkage in the exports of England in the above-mentioned manufactures, so that the production amounted to $39,282,000. From this source England secures a considerable portion of her revenue, which in the years 1873–'74 amounted to $113,189,200, while in Germany during the same period the tax from the same source amounted to only $26,125,100.

For the international commerce, England can command 28,773 steam and sailing vessels, with a carrying power of 5,753,973 tons.

In drawing a comparison between the United States and England and Germany the following interesting figures were adduced: The number of cotton spindles in the United States increased from 5,235,667 in 1867 to 10,054,364 in 1875. Ten years ago it could scarcely be said that the United States was an exporter of fabricated cotton. Six years ago American exporters sent $2,304,000 worth of fabricated cotton to the European markets, and this amount was increased last year to the round sum of $10,000,000. These figures show conclusively that the cotton industry in the United States is far more progressive and prosperous than it is on the continent of Europe. The Americans have driven the English not only from the American markets, but from the European markets, and even in the English markets they have commenced a most successful competition.

A glance at the manufacturing industry of British India shows another field of competition which gravely threatens the manufacturing interests of England and continental Europe. Mr. Gelly says in his report that within the last fifteen years the number of cotton spindles in India has increased from 338,000 to 1,231,000, and that the export of fabricated cotton has increased in the three years from 1874 to 1876

nearly 100 per cent. The marvelous increase of the cotton industry in America and India is causing intense anxiety among the spinners and weavers of England, and, in truth, throughout the manufacturing districts of Europe.

After a careful examination of the condition of the cotton industry in Germany, Mr. Gelley comes to the following conclusion: That the crisis which has raged for several years in the cotton industry of Germany has arisen in a great measure from the overproduction of England and the increase in the number of spindles in America and India. That the protective system is in no manner a hinderance to the commercial development of a country, but, on the contrary, is a source of prosperity and wealth, and that Germany having undervalued this great truth, now finds her great industries in a state of stagnation which does not exist in any of the other manufacturing countries of Europe.

Thinking that perhaps the facts contained in this statement may be of some interest, I take pleasure in transmitting them to the Department.

JAMES T. DU BOIS.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Aix la Chapelle, November 2, 1878.

THE ORIGIN OF THE AMERICAN COTTON-GOODS TRADE IN ENGLAND.

[Inclosure in Consul Shaw's annual report for the year 1878.]

MANCHESTER, *October* 15, 1878.

DEAR SIR: In reply to your request that I should furnish you with authentic information respecting the origin of the trade in this country in American cotton goods, together with its present position and its future prospects, I beg leave to report as follows:

During the summer of 1875, prices of cotton goods in the United States had undergone so important a decline that it became apparent to those familiar with values of similar fabrics in Manchester that the time had not only arrived for a determined effort on the part of those interested in American manufactures to regain a footing in foreign markets, such as India, China, Africa, and South America, which had, since 1861, been almost lost to them, but that it had also become possible to sell those goods in Manchester itself. The large stocks of cotton goods which had accumulated in the hands of American manufacturers or their agents, and the great increase of production which had been going on during the previous ten years, rendered the opening of new channels of distribution a question of the first importance, while the altered condition of commerce which had been brought about by the American war, and the changes growing out of these conditions had made the recovery of old channels or entrances into new ones very difficult.

The classes of cotton goods chiefly manufactured in the United States had long ceased to be imported there from England, but it had never been thought possible to reverse the current, and ship such goods from the United States to the very market which had long stood pre-eminent for such fabrics in the estimation of the world. The experiment was tried, however, and met with marked success. The American fabrics, beautifully made, and of great purity, at once met with a liberal reception at the hands of English buyers, who frankly acknowledged their merits, and they soon became so fully established in public favor that they were to be found in most of the leading houses engaged in the home trade throughout the kingdom, and in the principal shops in nearly every town. Experience has only served to confirm to the fullest extent the favorable judgment originally passed by consumers upon the goods, and the business thus commenced has continued to the present day, with a result best indicated by the statistics published in the United States of the shipments made to English ports.

The effect of the successful introduction of these goods into England has been not only to relieve the American markets of a certain portion of their surplus stock, which in its turn has paid for a similar amount of English and continental goods which must otherwise have been remitted for in gold or its equivalent, but by drawing the attention of buyers and consumers everywhere to the facts, become an advertisement over all the world of American goods, such as probably has never had a precedent in the course of trade.

The permanent ability of the United States to compete successfully with England for the possession of her own market is dependent upon many contingencies and conditions which have been and still are attracting the attention of able writers and thinkers, and need not be referred to here. That England has in the United States a formidable competitor for foreign markets is now admitted on all hands, and so far as the contest for these markets is concerned, it may be safely left, without legislation, to the houses engaged in the trade, who are fully alive to the importance of the issue.

AMERICAN COTTON MANUFACTURES COMPETING WITH THE ENGLISH MANUFACTURES.

[Extract from a report by Consul Crane, of Manchest r, dated October 11, 1875.]

The decline in the American trade is variously ascribed to three causes: 1st, the depression of business in America; 2d, the tariff, which is almost prohibitive on the ordinary kinds of Manchester goods; and, 3d, the fact that large quantities of textile fabrics with which the United States was at one time almost entirely supplied by this district are now being manufactured in America for a much lower price than that at which Manchester goods can be sold there. In fact, it is reported that during the past year a consignment of American-manufactured goods was exhibited in Manchester, whither they had been shipped for the purpose of competing in this domestic market with English-manufactured goods. While the venture was not a profitable one, it was attended with but little loss, and the incident is of value as showing how small the difference is between the cost of manufacture in England and America. It is a well-known fact that the old trade in what is technically known as "gray cloth," and which was once so remunerative to the Manchester shipping merchant "to the States," has now ceased entirely, and not a single piece of plain unbleached cottons has been shipped to the United States for several years past. It is admitted by leading manufacturers here that, without any artificial trade restrictions, American cotton fabrics ought not only to exclude all others from the domestic market of the United States, but to go further and compete successfully in all the markets of the East with the finest products of the best Lancashire looms. Every day it becomes more apparent that the harvest is ripe and needs the care of the reaper only. For instance, there has been manufactured during the past few years in this district for the Chinese trade, which was once controlled by American manufacturers, a class of goods highly finished with sizing and skillfully prepared in a variety of ways to give them the appearance and weight of the American cloths, whose place they have taken. These abuses of the trade, although openly practiced and long countenanced, have recently been carried to such an extent as to call forth the condemnation of the better classes of merchants in this country and provoke the indignant protests of the consumers of these doctored wares in China. If American manufacturers were in a position to take advantage of this opportunity they could easily and quickly regain their old position not only in the Chinese market, but wherever else there is a fair field for competition with English manufacturers. The latter very frankly acknowledge the gravity of the situation, but it does not seem to be recognized by those in America to whom the matter is of vital importance.

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS IN ENGLAND.

[Report by Consul Crane, of Manchester, dated September 30, 1876.]

By far the most interesting event of the commercial year in Manchester, that which produced the most excitement and alarm here and in which the people of the United States have most concern, was the appearance of New England made goods in Old England. As this incident promises to be of historical value, a brief outline of the movement may not be inappropriate. During the summer of 1875 prices of cotton goods in the United States had undergone so important a decline that it became apparent to those familiar with the values of similar fabric in Manchester that the time had not only arrived for a determined effort on the part of those interested in American manufactures to regain a footing in foreign markets, such as India, China, Africa, and South America, which had, since 1861, been almost lost to them, but that it had also become possible to sell those goods in Manchester itself.

The large stocks of cotton goods that had accumulated in the hands of American manufacturers or their agents, and the great increase of productions which had been going on during the previous ten years, rendered the opening of new channels of distribution a question of the first importance, while the altered conditions of commerce and trade, brought about by the American war and the changes growing out of it, had made the recovery of old channels or entrance into new ones very difficult.

The classes of cotton goods chiefly manufactured in the United States had long ceased to be imported there from England; but it had never before been thought possible to reverse the current, and ship such goods from the United States to the very market that had so long stood pre-eminent for cotton manufactures in the world. A prominent New York house, largely engaged in the sale of American goods, and having a branch house in Manchester possessing peculiar facilities for the work, entered with enterprise upon this new idea, and succeeded not only in selling cotton goods in Manchester that were brought from New York and Boston for foreign markets, but were able to compete with English manufacturers on their own ground for the possession of their home trade.

The American fabrics, beautifully made and of great purity, at once met with decided favor at the hands of English buyers. The field being once opened, importations month by month increased, while others besides the originators of the enterprise began to share in the advantage. Toward the close of 1875 the mills of Fall River, comprehending the new opening thus presented for their industry, sent to Manchester an intelligent delegation, which found upon investigation that it was possible for them to ship the products of their mills to England and realize for them as good, or even better, prices than they were then realizing at home. By this means they disposed of what was for the time being a surplus in their own market and were enabled to keep their machinery in motion and their operatives employed. The shipment of these goods, moreover, became widely known, not only in England, where they were eagerly sought for domestic consumption in preference to the old popular brands, but in other countries, and by drawing the attention of buyers and consumers everywhere to the facts, became an advertisement the world over of American goods such as has probably never had a precedent in the course of trade. The permanent ability of the United States to compete with England in her own markets is dependent on many contingencies, and the result remains to be seen. At the present time the business continues, and the important fact exists that during the year ending September 1, 1876, the American markets have been relieved of a large surplus stock, while the value of this stock has gone to pay for the importations of English goods of other descriptions into the United States to an equal amount, which would otherwise have had to be settled for in gold. The materials for forming an exact statement of the amount of the American cotton goods sold in Manchester during the year are not accessible, but it may be safely stated to be not less than 17,500 packages, containing 400,000 pieces of goods, of an estimated value of $1,500,00, gold; and this is exclusive of large quantities of goods which have been sold in New York and Boston for various foreign markets, and shipped to those distant markets via Liverpool in transit.

EFFECTS UPON THE ENGLISH MARKET.

It is noticeable that while, for the reasons mentioned above, the result of this new business has been favorable to the United States, the effect upon the English producers of similar goods has naturally been to interfere with their own trade, and this to an extent perhaps not measured merely by the amount of American goods imported. These goods came upon a market already depressed by other causes, and, introducing a novel competition, not only took the place of an equal quantity of English fabrics, but had the effect of accelerating the decline in prices and adding to the difficulties of manufacturers in Lancashire, who, aside from this competition, found it not easy, in many instances, to avoid the closing of their own mills, or at least resorting to the measure of short time. Under these circumstances it may be considered creditable to the English producers and an evidence of their consistent adherence to the economic principles which they have so long and steadily advocated, that no opposition was attempted in Manchester to the free admission and sale of the products of their American rivals, though the absence of reciprocal freedom to the admission of their own goods into the United States was, and still is, no doubt, keenly felt. It has, perhaps, been thought by many that Americans would feel, upon a calm review of the facts, that their sense of right and justice would not permit them to exclude from their own markets the fabrics of a friendly nation which actually placed no limitations upon any business which Americans saw it for their own interests to transact with her.

WAGES IN MANCHESTER AND THE UNITED STATES IN 1877.

[Extract from a report by Consul Crane, of Manchester, published in Commercial Relations for 1877.]

It is very difficult to show a comparison between the wages paid in England and the United States. The cotton-factories of the two countries are not similarly arranged and organized; duties that in one country are assigned to separate hands are in the other united and given to different grades of workmen; the technical names of the operatives are not the same, and the character of the machinery is in many instances strikingly different. It should also be remembered in considering the following exhibits, that the hours of labor in England (52½ per week) are shorter than those in America. The following is the rate paid in England in an average-sized mill, as near as can be obtained, after application to a large number of owners, compared with the wage earned in a factory of the same character in the United States.

	English wage, per diem.	American wage, per diem.		English wage, per diem.	American wage, per diem.
Picker:			**Mule-spinning:**		
Man	$0 96	$1 00	Second-piecer	$0 70	$1 84
Opener-hands	55	1 00	Bach-boys	36	30
Picker-hands	55	1 00	Spinners, 1,580 spindles	1 71	1 50
Carding-room:			**Dressing-room:**		
Overseer	1 75	3 50	Overseer	1 44	3 50
Grinders	96	1 37	Second-hand	96	1 84
Strickers	96	1 00	Warpers	92	90
Oiler	96	1 00	Drawing-girls	72	90
Lap-boys	62	45	**Weaving-room:**		
Card-boys	52	40	Overseer	1 75	3 50
Strippers	68	1 00	Second-hand	1 31	1 84
Drawing-girls	79	45	Section-hands	1 05	1 45
Slubber-girls	79	76	Weavers	66	90
Intermediate-girls	79	76	**Yard and watch:**		
Fly-frame girls	79	76	Watchmen	84	1 30
Roving-boys	69	50	Firemen	88	1 30
Sweepers	30	45	**Shop:**		
Warp-spinning:			Foremen	2 18	3 75
Overseer	1 31	3 50	Woodworkers	79	1 75
Second-hand	79	1 84	Ironworkers	79	1 60
Oiler and roving hand	56	1 00	**Cloth-room:**		
Doffer	52	60	Overseer	1 75	3 00
Other doffers	25	35	Man	61	1 37
Girls, 400 spindles each	46	70	Folder	1 05	1 25
Mule-spinning:			Inspector	1 05	1 25
Overseer	1 75	3 50			

WORKING CAPABILITIES OF THE BRITISH AND AMERICAN OPERATIVES.

The number of each of the various kinds of operatives, or even all the different kinds required in either of the respective mills, is not given in the foregoing comparative lists, but great pains have been taken to make the statement as accurate as possible. If it is at fault in any respect, the error is in giving too liberal a scale of wages to the English operatives.

It should also be stated as a material fact that it is generally admitted that a greater number of workmen is required in an English factory than in an American factory, both having the same productive power, owing to the difference in machinery and the greater convenience in the arrangements of the buildings in the United States. Some light may be thrown on this subject by the statement that in a given factory in Lancashire having 63,900 spindles 202 work people are employed at a total wage outlay per week of $880, or an average of $4.40 to each operative.

AMERICAN COTTON GOODS IN GERMANY.

[From a report by Consul Wilson, of Nuremberg, 1878.]

Our Centennial Exposition gave a great impetus to the exportation of *manufactured articles*, and our German friends who embraced that opportunity to visit the United States to inspect her institutions and resources personally were quite amazed at the accomplishments of our country during the first century of its existence. On their return home, their published reports and lectures were very flattering, both to our resources and to our commercial achievements. And they have been persistent in calling upon their own countrymen to arouse from their lethargy and to guard against the overwhelming competition with which the United States is threatening to destroy, to a great extent, their commercial interests. No better advertisement could have been devised for the fostering of our exports, since which time our shipping lists became swelled by articles such as boots and shoes, machinery, tools of various kinds, hardware, hickory and walnut lumber, clocks, locks, furniture, patent machines, stationery, perfumery, &c., which articles are fast gaining the favor of the continental consumers. However, it would be a mistaken idea to suppose that everything we manufacture will find a ready market in the German Empire. From a recent conversation with a gentleman, a partner in an old-established importing house in this consulate, and which for the past two or three years has turned its attention largely to importing American products, and who has canvassed the South German and Swiss

markets, with the view of creating a new business, I am led to think the important item of manufactured cotton goods cannot be successfully disposed of in this market. The gentleman referred to is a business man of ripe experience, an American citizen, and formerly did business in the United States of America. For the past two years he has given his undivided attention to the introduction into Germany of American bleached and brown shirtings and sheetings, and spread them over the entire country. At the start the prospect for a new and large outlet for these goods was very promising. Business in general in Germany was then comparatively good; and the manufactories in Alsace (which supply three-fourths of the wants of Germany in that line of goods) kept up prices. The high rate of gold then ruling rendered the cost of our American goods so much lower in Germany, and as all novelties attract, our bleached shirtings, with their handsome decorations and embellishments, were taken readily by the trade, though only in small quantities. But gradually the manufacturers of this class of goods in Alsace, Bavaria, and Baden, awakening to a sense of danger which the American competition threatened, commenced reducing their prices very considerably, and soon were enabled to grasp with a firm hand what had at one time apparently been lost to them.

It is true American cotton goods declined likewise about this time in the United States of America, but this decline was offset by a corresponding decline in the value of gold, to wit, from 12 to 3 per cent., whereas the prices for export kept up fully at the previous figures.

Our German competitors argued, and it must be admitted not without force, as follows: "How is it possible that the United States of America should be able to compete with our own cotton fabrics? It is true we import the raw cotton from the United States of America, but it is accessible to us at the same prices as the American manufacturer procures it. It is also true we have to pay freight and other expenses for its importation, but these expenses are in the same way applicable to the manufactured shirtings, sheetings, &c. If we now admit that the cost of labor is as cheap in America as it is with us (which, however, is *not* the case), and if we assume that our machines and other facilities for manufacturing this article are as perfect as those of the United States, how should it be possible that you can sell manufactured goods as cheaply as we can, since Germany levies an import duty of about 20 per cent. ad valorem on your manufactured goods, whereas the raw material is imported by us *free* of duty?" To this argument my informant had to submit, as it was a correct one; for, indeed, the import duty on bleached and brown cotton goods is about $7 per 100 pounds, which amounts to 20 per cent. on the value of the goods, as the following shows: A yard of bleached shirting of medium weight and quality will cost 9 cents and weigh ¼ pound. Now, if 100 pounds will cost $7, the ¼ pound will stand at 1.75 cent, which amounts to within a mere fraction of 20 per cent. of the value of the goods. As the German Government will not reduce their import duty to facilitate the introduction of American competition, there is no apparent remedy.

Business having become very much prostrated in Germany of late years, and the manufacturers of cotton goods constantly cutting their prices lower and lower, the efforts of my friend for the establishment of an import business to Germany in our manufactured cotton goods proved futile, his customers having fallen off and returned to their previous sources of supply. He is now attempting to place this class of goods in other European countries, where either the import duty is lighter, or where there is less home industry. This gentleman claims that, if the manufacturers in our Eastern States would study their own best interest, they would treat with commission merchants here *directly*, instead of selling their goods through New York and Philadelphia agents, thereby giving the sellers here the commission paid to the home agents, which is presumed to be an important factor. Complaint is also made that our manufacturers are very scanty with their supplies of samples, which necessarily embarrasses operations; their excuse being the heavy demands upon them. Another complaint is that the goods in bulk are generally inferior in quality to the samples by which they are offered and sold, which, if correct, is, of course, followed by a loss of confidence.

My informant says he recently had cause to complain to one of our manufacturers and exporters of this sharp practice, when he received for answer that "in America the goods are sold more by reputation than by their intrinsic value."

Another serious obstacle to the introduction of our cotton fabrics is the circumstance that our manufacturers will not deviate from their usual widths, weights, yarns, and combinations. The application of the commission merchant here for different sizes, &c., is usually met about as follows: "You have to confine your offers to the article as we make it." It would seem only natural that when a new market for certain articles is to be acquired, the goods should be made to correspond with the wants and suit the tastes of the purchasers. The English manufacturers are not so short-sighted, but push their goods and their agents into all markets, and study the wishes of their customers admirably. My friend informs me that Manchester, England, still maintains the supremacy in cotton goods in the new district in which he is now canvass-

ing. The merchants here claim that the Alsace shirting has a tougher texture than the American. I have heard of some condemned or damaged American muslins being sold, and then a great handle made of it by rival dealers. It occurred to me it might be the work of some rascally unpatriotic adventurer who was in pursuit of immediate gain, at the expense of our manufacturers, or the artifice of a tricky rival who wanted a pretext for crying "swindle," "swindle." As one bad lot of any kind of merchandize might ruin the sale of all, so our exporters cannot be too careful, or take too much pains in seeing that only the best products are sent abroad. It is true that the Germans send us a large amount of trash (*Billig aber schlecht*) from year to year, but we cannot afford to take such risks while introducing our wares into their country.

THE WEAVERS AND SPINNERS OF VOIGTLAND.

[Extract from a report from Consul Wilson, of Nuremberg, Bavaria, published in Commercial Relations for 1877.]

Were it not for the fact that the husbandman has been blessed with bountiful crops this year, the outlook for the coming winter would be even less cheering. In the northeast part of this consulate, bordering on Saxony, there is a district of very poor country, known as the Voigtland. The people are all weavers and spinners, or otherwise dependent upon weaving and the hosiery manufactures. These operatives have always received the smallest wages, and the soil being very barren they have had no other chance to earn their daily bread, which, at best, they could only do from day to day. About one year ago, no more orders coming for their goods, the factories were obliged to close, and many thousands were thrown out of work. The result was that early in the winter their cry of distress was heard all over the kingdom. It was reported that they were in danger of actual starvation. Public meetings were called and provisions were sent to them, besides some $10,000 in money was raised for their benefit, the major part of which was contributed here in Nuremberg. Since no complaint comes from that neighborhood at present, it is presumed that the mills are again in operation. It has been the only case of actual distress that I have heard of, and it is now reported that even this was greatly exaggerated.

AMERICAN COTTONS IN MADAGASCAR.

[From a report by Consul Robinson, of Tamatave, 1878.]

The imports of American goods constitute more than one-half the trade of Madagascar, but it is confined almost exclusively to two leading articles, our brown cotton textures and kerosene oil. With the last there has never been any competition here, and the first has swept all competition from this market. *The natives will not purchase other brown cottons at any price as long as the American article is to be had.*

I doubt not but that the result might be obtained for a variety of our productions, were the same efforts made, accompanied with proper mercantile sagacity—I mean in taking the place of many of the productions of Europe now brought to this market.

HOW THE EUROPEANS CONTROL TRADE IN MEXICO.

[Extracts from report of Vice-Consul Stephens, of San Blas, 1878.]

The principal articles imported from the United States are quicksilver, some machinery, bleached cottons, prints, kerosene and kerosene lamps, sewing-machines, hardware, drugs and medicines, clocks and watches. All are purchased in San Francisco by the parties interested, except cotton and machinery, which come from New York. The trade is small, comparatively speaking, to what it should be; but there is not an American merchant, nor even an agency, established in this part of Mexico; which is a great oversight in our merchants. An established house, properly managed, located in Guadalajara, with a branch in Tepic, supplied with a full assortment of cotton goods, hardware, agricultural implements, such as could easily be introduced in the country, would, beyond a doubt, realize sales of millions per annum. Our bleached cottons, and prints, would drive all the English goods of the same class from this extensive market, for they are preferred by all classes in this country. The same is true as regards tools, agricultural implements, and sewing-machines.

The trade at present is principally in the hands of the Germans, who have, within the last twenty-five years, driven the Spanish and English merchants from the market. The cotton goods they import principally from England, and they are of the lowest grade. The same is true as regards all their importations. Everything is spurious or of the lowest possible grade, so as to be able to undersell the other importers.

The German merchants are regularly trained at home for commerce. As they arrive

at manhood they are sent by the principal German houses of Hamburg and Manchester to some established house in this country, where they remain four or five years, to get an insight into the business of the country. Then, if their conduct and abilities meet approval, the European houses establish them at once, shipping them goods, and advancing money to pay their introductory ways, &c., at a very low interest. This is the manner in which nearly all the German houses have been formed in this country, and I must say they have been eminently successful in their operations. Our merchants cannot adopt this system at once, but they can in the future. At present they must limit their introductions to certain articles, say those that I have mentioned, in which they will have certain success; and, when here, study the consumption of the country, and prepare themselves to meet the demand.

The great drawback to the importer in this country is the credit system; all goods are sold at six or eight months' credit; and, at present, there is no use of attempting to vary this, for it is impossible to sell on any other terms. All importers have two prices, one for cash the other for credit; but they realize very little for cash.

THE COTTON-MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY OF RUSSIA, 1850 TO 1874.

[Report by Consul-General Pomuts, of St. Petersburg, published in Commercial Relations for 1875.]

In my annual return for 1874, while discussing the articles of import from the United States, I informed the Department of the great rise in the importation of American cotton into Russia, the statements therein submitted showing the quantities as well as the values of the same for the years 1872, 1873, and 1874. As a supplement thereto, best answering the question then presenting itself, namely, whether that increase was likely to continue in future, or the period named had only been an exceptional one, I have the honor to submit herewith tabular statement No. 28, showing the progress and actual state of the Russian cotton-manufacturing industry during the years 1850, 1860, 1870, and 1874. Strange as it may appear, the two principal writers treating on the several branches of the manufacturing industry of Russia have no completed tabular statements at all referring especially to the cotton-manufacturing industry of the empire. Mr. Timiryazeff, in his statistical atlas of the principal branches of the home manufacturing industry (much valuable information as it may contain) appears to restrict himself to figures applying only to the year 1867. Mr. Matthaci, in his work, "The Manufacturing Industry of Russia," published in 1872, furnishes a good many interesting notes pertaining to the history of several branches of industry in Russia, from earlier centuries to later dates, in discussing the degree of development of each, as shown in the samples presented at the industrial exhibition held at St. Petersburg in 1870. Neither of the two, however, furnishes figures applying to any of the preceding decennial periods, without which no comparison between the present stage and the past condition of any branch of industry can safely be made. To reach the items desired, the only way was resort to anterior sources, the official records of the Department of manufactures and commerce, and the returns of provincial governments, to compile the items for each of the periods mentioned, and to consolidate the same in a tabular form, as now submitted.

NUMBER OF COTTON FACTORIES IN RUSSIA.

From this statement it will appear that the total value of articles furnished by the cotton-manufacturing industry of Russia was 44,000,000 in 1851, 101,000,000 in 1860, 146,000,000 in 1870, and 201,000,000 roubles in 1874, all of which, or nearly so, are articles of home consumption, since, according to the official export lists of the custom-house department, but a small amount is being sent to foreign markets. It appears, further, that in 1850 there were only 487 cotton factories in Russia, with 52,000 workmen employed therein; in 1860 there were 1,425 factories, with 111,099 men employed; in 1870 the number of factories rose to 2,041, with 185,318 men employed; and in 1874 to 2,093 factories, with 246,436 men employed therein, which certainly evinces an encouraging progress, especially during the last 14 years.

COTTON SPINNING.

With special reference to each of the principal branches of the cotton industry, the factories employed in cotton spinning appear to yield larger amounts than those occupied in the weaving and printing. The 20 spinning factories, with 13,020 workmen employed in 1850, have furnished articles valued at 17,369,091 roubles; in 1860, 38 factories, with 27,481 workmen, gave 39,446,707 roubles; in 1870, 65 factories, with 60,443 workmen, 60,055,563 roubles; and in 1874, 72 factories, with 80,918 workmen, 85,358,127 roubles. The principal districts employed in cotton spinning are the Governments of Vladimeer and Moscow, in the center, and that of St. Petersburg and Esthland in the northwest, they yielding the largest amounts in the yearly values of

articles manufactured; all other districts, as Rjazan, Tula, Yaroslav, Kalisz, furnishing less amounts. In comparing these districts with each other, we meet a strange anomaly with regard to the yielding capacity of the factories in several governments. Taking the year 1874, for instance, we find the Government of Vladimeer, with its 21 factories and 37,571 workmen, produced articles valued at 35,027,326 roubles; that of St. Petersburg, 7 factories with 4,212 workmen, realized 8,123,172 roubles; and that of Esthland, 1 factory only, with 3,112 men employed, produced the amount of 4,721,112 roubles. While, therefore, in the Government of Vladimeer one workman is only equal to the production valued at 937 roubles, in the Esthland government the amount produced by one workman rises to 1,513 roubles, and in that of the St. Petersburg district to 1,928 roubles. This proves that in the central districts, by introducing better machinery and interior arrangements, even with a less number of workmen, the amount of production might be increased to much higher figures, or the same amount of production could be secured by a much reduced number of workmen. The former case would be in the interest of the manufacturing industry, since by it it would be enabled to produce more and at lower figures; the latter would be a benefit to the agricultural industry of the country, since, in that instance, quite a number of workman would or could be free and transferred to the agricultural production of the country, which is known to be actually wanting more hands in order to have its several branches properly attended to. I mention this to give one of the many instances showing the unnecessary waste of working force the Russian manufacturing industry allows at the present day, to the detriment of other branches of industry of the empire, it being, besides, one of the chief causes why the several branches of the Russian industry are producing articles at much higher prices than the principles of a sound competition with articles of foreign make would seem to suggest.

COTTON WEAVING.

The next branch of the cotton industry is cotton weaving. The figures relating to the same are as follows: In 1850 there were 490 cotton weaving factories in Russia, with 30,439 men employed, producing goods valued at 14,073,335 roubles; in 1860 there were 1,254 factories, with 61,587 workmen, producing 38,154,777 roubles; in 1870 factories of this branch rose to 1,820, with 96,060 workmen, and their production amounted to 55,955,502 roubles; and in 1874 there were 1,846 factories, with 107,565 men, producing goods worth 63,416,052 roubles. The principal districts employed in cotton weaving are those mentioned before, namely, the governments of Vladimeer, Moscow, St. Petersburg, the others producing less amounts. In this branch the same discrepancy in the yielding capacity of several governments is met with as stated with regard to cotton spinning, namely, while the Moscow district employs 35,387 men and produces 19,627,119 roubles, that of Vladimeer employs 35,178 men and produces 16,042,251 roubles worth of goods; that of St. Petersburg, with 7,304 men yields 8,048,701 roubles, and the one in Esthland, with 1,412 men, is producing to the amount of 1,974,011 roubles. This gives to the Vladimeer district 456 roubles as the value of production of one workman; in Moscow, 554 roubles; in the district of St. Petersburg, 1,102 roubles; and in Esthland, 1,327 roubles, the causes and circumstances of the discrepancy being the same as mentioned above.

COTTON PRINTS.

With regard to factories engaged in cotton prints, in 1850 there were only 67 factories, with 9,253 workmen, producing goods to the value of 12,935,971 roubles; in 1860, 133 factories, with 22,031 workmen, producing 24,255,838 roubles. The amounts rose in 1870 to 156 factories, with 28,815 men, attaining the sum of 30,595,266 roubles, and in 1874 to 175 factories, with 57,953 men, realizing the sum of 52,648,343 roubles. The principal districts engaged in cotton prints are those of Vladimeer and Moscow; all others, including that of St. Petersburg, being of less amounts.

GENERAL DEDUCTIONS.

From the figures submitted above it is evident that the productions of the several branches of the Russian cotton manufacturing industry are showing a great progress during each of the decennial periods from 1850, especially since the year 1870; and if the circumstance is considered that better implements, labor saving machines, and appliances of latest inventions are not introduced to this industry to any considerable extent as yet, as seen from preceding figures with reference to the great difference in the working capabilities of the several districts and factories engaged in the cotton spinning, weaving, and printing industry, and when it is further remembered that of the whole population of 82,000,000, fully 50,000,000 to 55,000,000 are using cotton manufactures in preference to linen goods throughout the whole year, the conclusion seems to be justified that with the gradual advancement of the welfare and prosperity of the people in Russia, more especially of the middle and lower class, who are the

customers of these home manufactures almost exclusively, the demand for cotton goods will surely be increased in future, occasioning a greater increase in the importation of raw cotton as a necessary consequence. It may be that Russia will increase the importation of the Asiatic article in future, since by its late advances in Central Asia it came into contact with several districts the climate and soil of which seem well adapted to the raising of the article, as are, beside the districts of Hashkent and Tchemkent, the provinces of Bukhara, Chiva, Khokand, and others; but even if the expense of its transportation should be reduced by building of the railway line lately sanctioned by the council of the empire, and intended to reach those provinces, the Asiatic article will for an indefinitely long period yet amount to a small quantity only as compared with the amount brought in from the United States; its quality, besides, is much inferior and not able to compete with the produce of America.

In closing my remarks, referring especially to the cotton manufacturing industry of this country, I may state that the difference in the working capabilities of several manufacturing districts, and especially in the proportion of the amount of production realized through the work of one single journeyman in factories of the same class, is repeating itself throughout all branches in general of the national home industry of this empire. This fact is of great moment; it not only allows an inference on the inner arrangements of the factories themselves, but it may be set down as one of the chief causes why, in general, the costs of the productions of the Russian manufacturing industry are so high as to render them unable to compete with articles of foreign production of the same class. The manufacturing industry stands, not without reason, under the imputation of absorbing too much of the working power to the detriment of the agricultural and rural industries of the country. The incongruity could best be remedied by introducing labor-saving implements into more common use in the factories, as has been done by other manufacturing countries long ago. The peculiar feature of the Russian industry of employing too many hands in the respective factories may have originated in times gone by, when labor could be obtained at lowest wages before the liberation of serfs. Although the price of labor is to-day considerably higher, the Russian manufacturer persists in the habit of rating the extent of his establishment not by the amount of production attained, but according to the number of men employed therein; it appears to him an act of kindness and of patriotism to employ rather more men than is absolutely needed, without reflecting that by doing so he is unnecessarily withdrawing too much of the laboring force of the country that could be much better employed in other pursuits.

COTTON-GOODS TARIFFS OF THE WORLD.

[This list of the "Tariff Rates" of the several countries of the world on "Cotton Yarns and Manufactures" has been prepared (a great part translated) at the Department of State for the benefit of our Cotton Exporters, and is based upon the very latest changes, transmitted in part by efficient United States consuls, and in part collated from British and other foreign documents, and from official promulgation of such laws.]

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

Countries.	Description.	Rate of duty.*
St. Paul de Loando (law of July, 1880.)	Cotton yarns	Free.
	Manufactures:	
	Unbleached, smooth, and twilled fabric; canvas ..... kilo	(150 reis.) $0.15
	Bleached fabric of any denominatton ..... do	(250 ries.) 25
	Colored fabric in thread stamped, satin stripes, prints, stripes, handkerchiefs, velvets, baize, and other qualities not specified ..... kilo	(400 ries.) 40
	Twine	Free.
	Bags	Free.
	Made-up fabrics will pay tariff duty, plus 50%.	
	Common cotton goods for the use of the interior of the province, such as chilloes, handkerchiefs, pannos do costa, stripes, unbleached cotton goods, satin stripes, and blue baft will be weighed in the custom-houses with their respective tares, being verified by an opening made in the covers of the bales, unless the verificador deems it necessary to have them opened. When, however, the tares in which the goods come are objects that can be sold in the market, these tares shall pay their respective duties; casks, pipes, barrels, cases, bale covers, bags, and such others are excepted. Tares to be reduced from gross weight.	
Gambia	Cotton yarns and all manufactures	2 per cent. ad val.
Sierra Leone	Cotton yarns and manufactures	Free.
Gold Coast	....do ..... do	4 per cent. ad val.
Morocco	....do ..... do	10 per cent. ad val.
Tripoli	....do ..... do	8 per cent. ad val.
Cape Colony	....do ..... do	10 per cent. ad val.
Natal	Cotton yarns	6 per cent. ad val.
	Manufactures; piece goods	6 per cent. ad val.
	Sheetings and articles	15 per cent. ad val.
Madagascar	Cotton yarns and all manufactures	In kind.
Mauritius	....do ..... do	6¾ per cent.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

Newfoundland	Cotton yarns	Free.
	Manufactures	13 per cent. ad val.
Dominion of Canada (law of 1879.)	Cotton:	
	Yarns:	
	Not bleached, dyed, or colored	2 cts. per pound and 15 per ct. ad val.
	Bleached, dyed, or colored	3 cts. per pound and 15 per ct. ad val.
	Manufactures, not elsewhere specified, held to embrace: quilts and sheets (white or colored), cotton diaper, window holland, prints, printed shirtings, furniture prints, Cretonne, plain prints, printed cotton, Cashmere, cotton huckaback, cotton damask in pieces and cloths, towels, book muslin, jaconet, checked jaconet, cambric, Bishop's and Victoria lawns, tarlatans, hair cords, crinoline, and all kinds of printed muslins, leno, pique, brilliante, cotton handkerchiefs, curtains, known as Swiss, Nottingham or lace, &c., if of cotton; muslin lace, all kinds of cotton scarfs or ties, rolled jaconets, glove-finished cambrics, moleskins, corduroy, cotton velvets and velveteens, cotton parasols and umbrellas, cotton tapes, ferrets, stay-bindings, bed lace, boot web, carpet-binding, blind tassels, window leno, cotton fringe, braids, boot and stay laces, cotton-velvet ribbons, and all kinds of cotton laces	20 per cent. ad val.

* The value of foreign money and quantity in weights are given at the end of this work.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Dominion of Canada (law of 1879).	Cotton manufactures—Continued.	
	Seamless bags, to pay duty according to tariff irrespective of contents.	2 cts. per pound and 15 per ct. ad val.
	Prunella, is a twilled cotton	2 cts. per sq. yd. and 15 per ct. ad val.
	Clothing, includes ladies' and children's cotton underclothing, men's shirts, shirt-fronts, collars and cuffs, composed of cotton, or partly of cotton and partly of linen (unless the importer can prove that the component part of chief value is linen); skirts and dresses of cotton	30 per cent. ad val.
	Duck vests, chiefly of cotton	30 per cent. ad val.
		*Pes. cts.
Mexico (law of 1872)	Cotton yarns, bleached or unbleached ..... per kilo.	0 60
	dyed ..... do..	0 96
	Thread on reels ..... dozen reels	0 14
	In balls or hanks ..... kilo.	1 43
	Cotton manufactures:	
	Tissues, plain, bleached or not ..... square meter.	0 09
	Twilled or croisé ..... do	0 16
	Printed or dyed, sateen, damask, plush and velvet ..... square meter.	0 16
	Chintz or indianas, colored ..... do	0 14
	Worked or imbroidered ..... do	0 19
	Blankets, quilts, and coverlets ..... do	0 16
	Lace (including weight of boxes and winders) .kilo.	6 00
	Net, white or colored (including weight of card-boxes or winders) ..... kilo.	1 43
	Curtains, of muslin, plain or embroidered	55 per cent. ad val.
	Curtains, of lace, plain or embroidered ..... kilo..	6 00
	Handkerchiefs:	
	White or colored, up to 42 centimeters square, dozen	0 26
	Colored, up to 84 centimeters square ..dozen.	1 06
	White, and with white or colored border, up to 50 centimeters square ..... dozen.	1 06
	White, and with white or colored border, up to 84 centimeters square ..... dozen.	1 32
	Embroidered, with or without lace edging, up to 50 centimeters square ..... dozen.	2 11
	Shawls, not including the fringe ....square meter.	0 16
	Haberdashery, tapes, braids and edgings ..... kilo.	2 00
	Ready-made clothing:	
	Socks, for adults ..... dozen pairs.	1 00
	Socks, for children ..... do ...	0 66
	Stockings, for adults ..... do....	1 76
	Stockings, for children ..... do....	0 66
	Drawers, of cotton cloth, for adults ...dozen.	4 00
	Drawers, of cotton cloth, for children ..... do..	2 00
	Vests and drawers, knitted ..... kilo.	1 50
	Shirts, white and colored, for adults ...dozen.	4 00
	Shirts, white and colored, for children ...do..	2 00
	Chemises and nightgowns, for women, plain or embroidered ..... dozen.	7 00
	Chemises and nightgowns, for girls, plain or embroidered ..... dozen.	3 50
	Jackets, knitted, white or colored, plain or napped ..... dozen.	8 00
	Collars and cuffs, embroidered	55 per cent. ad val.
	Petticoats, embroidered ..... dozen.	7 00
	Petticoats, plain ..... do..	5 00
	Fronts for shirts ..... do..	0 50
	Gloves ..... do..	1 00
	Clothing, not specified	182 per cent. ad val.
Guatemala	Cotton yarns and manufactures	80 per cent. ad val. / 100 per cent. ad val.
West Indies:		
British:		
Barbadoes	Cotton yarns and manufactures	4 per cent. ad val.
Bermuda	do ..... do	5 per cent. ad val.
Bahamas	do ..... do	20 per cent. ad val.
Turk's Island	do ..... do	10 per cent. ad val.
Jamaica	do ..... do	12½ per cent. ad val.
Virgin Islands	do ..... do	7⅛ per cent. ad val.
St. Christopher	do ..... do	8 per cent. ad val.
Nevis	do ..... do	12½ per cent. ad val.
Antigua	do ..... do	6 per cent. ad val.

* Peso or dollar = 89.4 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
West Indies:	Cotton manufactures—Continued.	*Pes. cts.*
British:		
Montserrat	Cotton yarns and manufactures	7½ per cent. ad val.
Dominica	...do...do	10 per cent. ad val.
St. Lucia	...do...do	10 per cent. ad val.
St. Vincent	...do...do	6½ per cent. ad val.
Barbadoes	...do...do	4 per cent. ad val.
Grenada	...do...do	5 per cent. ad val.
Tobago	...do...do	7½ per cent. ad val.
Trinidad	...do...do	4 per cent. ad val.
French:		
Guadeloupe	Cotton yarns	Free.
	Manufactures all goods except otherwise specified	8 per cent. ad val.
	Clothing for laborers	6 per cent. ad val.
	Clothing, other	12 per cent. ad val.
	Cloth for bags	3 per cent. ad val.
Hayti	Cotton yarns and manufactures	10 per cent. ad val.
St. Domingo	...do...do	10 per cent. ad val.
Honduras, British	...do...do	10 per cent. ad val.
Guiana, British	...do...do	5 per cent. ad val.
U. S. of Colombia	Cotton:	**Pes. cts.*
	Yarns of all kinds ...kilo.	0 40
	Manufactures:	
	Canvas ...kilo.	0 15
	Cloths, bleached or unbleached, plain and embroidered, not woven nor printed, as domestic calicoes, long cloths, madapolans, &c. ...kilo.	0 40
	Muslins, drills, tulle, damask, &c. ...do	0 60
	Ready-made clothing ...do.	0 60
Venezuela (law of May 20, 1881).	Cotton:	†*Centimes.*
	Yarns and manufactures:	
	Barége, open-worked and embroidered ...kilo.	500
	Dressing-gowns, made up or in the piece ...kilo.	250
	Dressing-gowns of linen or mixed with cotton, made up or in the piece ...kilo.	1,000
	Dressing-gowns of linen cambric or fine cambric, of linen or mixed with cotton ...kilo.	2,000
	Cambric mixed with cotton, unbleached or colored ...kilo.	500
	Colored lawn ...do.	500
	Caps or night-caps, woven in stocking net ...do.	250
	Caps or night-caps of silk or mixed with cotton ...kilo.	1,000
	Caps or night-caps of wool or mixed with cotton ...kilo.	500
	Blond lace of linen or of cotton ...do.	500
	Cotton dimity, white or colored ...do.	250
	Tassels of linen or of cotton ...do.	500
	Tassels of wool or mixed with cotton ...do.	500
	Napped stuff of cotton, white or colored ...do.	250
	Unbleached bramant of linen or of cotton ...do.	125
	Bleached bramant of linen mixed with cotton ...kilo.	250
	Britannias, bleached, of cotton ...do.	125
	Britannias of linen, or mixed with cotton ...do.	250
	Brillantine of colored cotton ...do.	250
	Unbleached sail-cloth, of linen or of cotton ...kilo.	125
	Socks or stockings of cotton ...do.	250
	Socks or stockings of linen, or mixed with cotton ...kilo.	500
	Awnings of wool or mixed with cotton ...do.	500
	Socks or stockings of linen or wool, or mixed with cotton ...kilo.	500
	Cotton net woven drawers and pantaloons ...do.	250
	Common Buckthorn, of wool or mixed with cotton ...kilo.	500
	Ready-made shirts of cotton, with no linen ...kilo.	500
	Ready-made shirts of linen, or those of cotton which are mixed with a little linen ...kilo.	1,000
	Ready-made shirts, of wool, or mixed with cotton ...kilo.	1,000

* Colombian peso = 82.3 cents United States money.
† 100 centimes to a Bolivar = 19.3 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Venezuela (law of May 20, 1881).	Cotton—Continued.	*Centimes.*
	Yarns and manufactures:	
	Ready-made shirts of wool, or mixed with cotton, with silk embroidery, or trimmed with silk.....kilo.	1,000
	Gowns in the piece, of muslin, linen, gauze, organdy, zephyr, linen cambric, tarlatan, imitation of linen lawn in cotton, and of linen mixed with cotton, unbleached and colored.....kilo.	500
	Ready-made gowns of linen cambric, linen lawn, net zephyr, linen, tarletan or muslin, of linen or of cotton, and any other similar fabric.....kilo.	2,000
	Ready-made gowns, of wool or mixed with cotton.....kilo.	2,000
	Cotton-embroidery floss.....do..	125
	Capes, cloaks, and overcoats, of wool or mixed with cotton, for men, women, and children.....kilo.	2,000
	Capes and cloaks, of linen or of cotton, for men.....kilo.	1,000
	Germanic (a cloth made in Germany), of bleached or colored cotton.....kilo.	250
	Bombazines of cotton or mixed with wool.....kilo.	500
	Purses of cotton or of linen: for money..do..	500
	Bombazines of cotton, white or colored..do..	250
	Table-covers of cotton, or mixed with wool.....kilo.	500
	Table-covers made in cotton crochet, or linen or wool.....kilo.	500
	Table-covers of cotton, or mixed with wool, with silk trimmings or silk embroidery.....kilo.	1,000
	Brussels camlet, woolen cloth, or mixed with cotton.....kilo.	500
	Kerseymere of wool, or mixed with cotton.....kilo.	500
	Cotton zephyr, white or colored, fancy, plain, worked, or embroidered.....kilo.	500
	Cotton or linen tapes.....kilo.	500
	Cotton tapes, or tapes mixed with wool..do..	500
	Cotton cambric, plain, fancy, trimmed, or embroidered, white or colored.....kilo..	500
	Cotton cambric, or mixed with linen. ...do..	1,000
	Counterpanes of cotton or linen.....do..	250
	Tapestries, or curtains of cotton, or mixed with wool.....kilo.	1,000
	Tapestries, or curtains of cotton, or of linen.....kilo..	500
	Cords of cotton, or of linen.....do..	500
	Cords of cotton, mixed.....do..	500
	Ticking, unbleached, of linen or cotton ..do..	125
	Ticking, of cotton, white or colored .....do..	250
	Ticking, of cotton, mixed, white or colored.....kilo.	250
	Dimity of cotton, or of linen.....do..	125
	Cotton creas, or mixed with linen.....do..	250
	Cretonne of colored cotton.....do..	250
	Cubica of cotton, or mixed with wool ...do..	500
	Shawls, or cloths of cotton muslin, or other cotton cloth, plain, fancy, worked, or trimmed.....kilo.	500
	Shawls of cotton warp, mixed, plain, fancy, trimmed, or embroidered.....kilo..	1,000
	Shawls of cotton, or mixed with wool, with silk embroidery, or trimmed with silk .kilo.	1,000
	Shawls of cotton, mixed with wool . ....do..	500
	Epaulets of cotton, or mixed.....do..	500
	Cotton damask, white or colored.....do..	250
	Cotton damask, or mixed with linen, white or colored.....kilo.	250
	Cotton damask, or mixed with wool.....do..	500
	Cotton, domestic, unbleached.....do..	125
	Cotton, domestic, bleached.....do..	125
	Cotton, domestic, colored, or of linen.....do..	125
	Drilling, unbleached, of cotton or linen..do..	125
	Drilling of bleached, or colored cotton...do..	125

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Venezuela (law of May 20, 1881).	Cotton—Continued.	*Centimes.*
	Yarns and manufactures:	
	Drilling, bleached or colored, of cotton, mixed with linen ..... kilo.	250
	Laces of cotton, mixed ..... do..	500
	Laces of cotton ..... do..	500
	Buckram of cotton ..... do..	125
	Scarfs of cotton ..... do..	500
	Scarfs of cotton, mixed with wool ..... do..	500
	Shoulder capes, or tippets of linen cambric net, zephyr, muslin, or other fine cloth of linen, or of cotton ..... kilo.	1,000
	Cloth made of hemp, or mixed with cotton .. do..	250
	Bands of linen, or mixed with cotton .... do..	500
	Bands of wool, or mixed with cotton .... do..	500
	Plush, corded silk for embroidery, and linen cord, or cotton cord ..... kilo..	500
	Plush or cotton velvet, imitation of velvet ..... kilo.	500
	Plush, corded silk, and woolen cord, or mixed with cotton ..... kilo.	500
	Fine white linen or mixed with cotton .... do.	250
	Fringes of wool or mixed with cotton .... do..	500
	Flannel made of wool mixed with cotton .. do..	500
	Blankets made of cotton ..... do..	125
	Blankets made of wool or mixed with cotton, of different colors ..... kilo.	250
	Pillow-cases of linen or of cotton ..... do..	500
	Pillow-cases of linen cambric or linen lawn or mixed with cotton ..... kilo.	1,000
	Fustians, of cotton, made up or in the piece ..... kilo.	250
	Fustians of linen or mixed with cotton ... do..	500
	Galloons of linen or of cotton ..... do..	500
	Galloons of wool or mixed with cotton ... do..	500
	Grenadines of cotton, white or colored, plain, fancy, trimmed, or embroidered ..... kilo.	500
	Gloves of linen or of cotton ..... do..	500
	Gloves of wool or mixed with cotton ..... do..	500
	Ginghams of linen or of cotton ..... do..	125
	Hammocks of linen or of cotton ..... do..	250
	Thread, linen or cotton, for sewing, embroidering, or knitting ..... kilo.	125
	Cotton muslins, white or colored, plain, fancy, trimmed, or embroidered ..... kilo.	500
	Muslins of linen or mixed with cotton, unbleached or colored ..... kilo.	500
	Muslins of wool or mixed with cotton .... do..	500
	Organdy, of cotton, white or colored, plain, fancy, trimmed, or embroidered ..... kilo.	500
	Wick or cotton thread for wicks ..... do..	250
	Pantaloons and drawers knitted of cotton .. do..	250
	Woolen cloth mixed with cotton ..... do..	500
	Shawls, scarfs, and cloths of muslin, net, linen, or other material, or of cotton ... kilo.	500
	Handkerchiefs and neckkerchiefs of cotton mixed with wool ..... kilo.	500
	Handkerchiefs and neckkerchiefs of cotton mixed with wool, with embroidery or trimmed with silk ..... kilo.	1,000
	Handkerchiefs of cotton mixed with linen .. do..	1,000
	Umbrellas, sunshades, and parasols of wool, linen, or cotton ..... kilo.	250
	Fancy trimmings of cotton, mixed ..... do..	500
	Fancy trimmings of wool or mixed with cotton ..... kilo.	500
	Percalles of cotton in colors ..... do..	250
	Cotton piqué, white or colored ..... do..	250
	Cotton silesia, bleached ..... do..	125
	Silesia of cotton, mixed, bleached ..... do..	250
	Silesia, unbleached, of linen or of cotton .. do..	125
	Poplins, of cotton ..... do..	125
	Cotton net or tulle of cotton or Agave ... do..	500
	Cuffs of linen or cotton, for men ..... do..	1,000
	Cuffs of linen or cotton, for women ..... do..	1,000
	Cotton gauze, white or colored, plain, fancy, trimmed, or embroidered ..... kilo.	500
	Wearing apparel made of linen or of cotton, for men ..... kilo.	1,000

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Venezuela (law of May 20, 1881).	Cotton—Continued.	*Centimes.*
	Yarns and manufactures:	
	Wearing apparel made of silk, of wool, or mixed with cotton....kilo.	2,000
	Rouen cloth of bleached cotton....do..	125
	Rouen cloth of linen mixed with bleached cotton....kilo..	250
	Net ruches and any other material of cotton....kilo.	1,000
	Altar cloths of cotton....do..	250
	Alpaca of wool or mixed with cotton....do..	500
	Arabias of linen or of cotton....do..	125
	Ribbons or bands of knitted cotton....do..	250
	Ribbons or bands of cotton....do..	500
	Ribbons or bands of cotton, mixed....do..	500
Brazil (Revised, January 1, 1880).	Cotton:	*Reis.*
	Yarns:	
	Single, for weaving, raw or bleached....kilo.	50
	Single, for weaving, dyed....do..	70
	Twisted, or thread of whatever quality, in reels, balls, or skeins, for sewing, crochet, knitting, &c....kilo.	600
	Manufactures:	
	Floor-cloth and carpets....do..	450
	Flannel....do..	600
	Barége, tarlatan, grenadine, and other not classified open woven tissues:	
	Weighing to the 100 square meters, 4 kilos, or less....kilo.	5,000
	Weighing to the 100 square meters above 4 kilos....kilo.	2,500
	Muslin and Cambric:	
	Open-woven, colored, plain or figured, for mosquito curtains....kilo.	2,000
	Coarse plain, striped or checked, white or colored, for lining....kilo.	800
	Of other qualities, plain, damasked or figured in the loom, checked, striped, or spotted, white, dyed, twilled, or stamped:	
	Weighing to the 100 square meters, 4 kilos, or less....kilo.	5,000
	Weighing to the 100 square meters, above 4 kilos....kilo.	2,500
	Lengths for dresses, petticoats, caps, or coifs, and other apparel....kilo.	5,000
	Bands and edgings....do..	4,000
	Embroidered by machinery:	
	Weighing to the 100 square meters, 4 kilos, or less....kilo	8,000
	Weighing to the 100 square meters, above 4 kilos, or less....kilos	4,000
	Lengths for dresses, petticoats, caps, or coifs, and other apparel....kilo.	8,000
	Bands and edgings....do..	8,000
	Embroidered by hand:	
	Lengths for dresses, petticoats, caps or coifs, and other apparel....	30 per cent. ad val.
	Bands and edgings....kilo.	16,000
	Not specified....do.	8,000
	Velvet and velveteen....do..	1,250
	Duck, twills, and drills, castors and similar tissues....kilo	600
	Damasks....do..	1,700
	Tulle:	
	Plain, weighing to the 100 square meters, 4 kilos, or less....kilo.	8,000
	Plain, weighing to the 100 square meters, above 4 kilos....kilo.	2,500
	Figured or embroidered....do..	6,000
	Stiffened, for lining hats....do..	1,000
	Guipure stitch....do..	3,000
	Crotchet stitch....do..	2,000
	Fustians and sateens....do..	1,500
	Nankeen, scarlet....do..	1,200
	Nankeen, not specified....do..	1,000
	Holland, unbleached, bleached, or colored..do..	650
	Croisés, glazed, for lining....do.	650

*1,000 reis to a Brazilian milreis = 54.6 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Brasil (Revised, January 1, 1880).	Cotton—Continued.	*Reis.*
	Manufactures:	
	Croisés, other kinds.....do..	1,200
	Madapolams, white, up to 15 threads in the square millimeters.....kilo.	550
	Madapolams, white, exceeding 15 threads.do.	750
	Madapolams, dyed or printed, glazed for curtains.....	2,000
	Madapolams, dyed or printed, other kinds.do...	1,200
	Cotton cloth:	
	Light:	
	Plain, white, for maps, and other purposes, up to 15 threads in 5 square millimeters.....kilo..	1,000
	Plain, white, for maps, and other purposes, above 15 threads.....kilo.	2,000
	Figured, striped, or checked.....do..	1,500
	Stiffened, white, dyed or colored, especially for lining.....kilo.	650
	Printed, and other kinds not specified.....kilo.	1,200
	Heavy:	
	Unbleached, plain.....do..	400
	Unbleached, twilled .....do..	400
	Colored or dyed.....do..	600
	Figured or damasked, not otherwise specified.....kilo.	1,000
	Rough for towels.....do..	550
	Striped for ponchos.....do..	900
	Platilla, white, up to 15 threads in 5 square millimeters.....kilo.	600
	Platilla, above 15 threads in 5 square millimeters.....kilo.	600
	Platilla, dyed.....do..	[650
	Ginghams, up to 12 threads in 5 square millimeters.....kilo.	600
	Ginghams, from 12 to 15 threads in 5 square millimeters.....kilo.	900
	Ginghams, above 15 threads in 5 square millimeters.....kilo.	1,200
	Ginghams, figured.....do..	1,500
	Tissues of stocking net.....do..	1,200
	Blue cloth.....do..	1,000
	Shawls, scarfs, and handkerchiefs:	
	Ordinary coarse, plain, twilled, figured, or damasked, white, dyed, or colored...kilo.	800
	Of muslin, gauze, and similar tissues, all kinds.....kilo.	1,200
	Of lace.....	20 per cent. ad. val.
	Not specified.....	As tissues of kind.
	NOTE.—Shawls, &c., fringed with lace of more than three centimeters in breadth will be charged an additional 30 per cent. of the respective duties.	
	Counterpanes, quilted.....kilo.	350
	Cotton blankets and bed coverlets:	
	White, dark, with or without nap....do..	250
	Figured or damasked, in imitation of fustian and the like, bleached or colored..kilo.	800
	Sheets, quilts, and pillow-cases, trimmed with lace.....	30 per cent. ad val.
	Sheets, quilts, and pillow-cases, plain.....	As tissues of kind.
	Table-cloths, embroidered.....	30 per cent. ad. val.
	Table-cloths, other kinds.....	As tissue of cotton.
	Towels and napkins, embroidered or with lace.....	30 per cent. ad val.
	Towels and napkins, other kinds.....	As tissues of kind.
	Plush.....kilo.	600
	Tapes.....do..	2,500
	Galloons and fringes.....do..	2,500
	Gloves, coarse, for soldiers or servants..doz. p'rs.	600
	Gloves, other kinds.....do..	1,500
	Mantelets, chemisettes, and other articles of fashion:	
	Of lace.....	20 per cent. ad val.
	Of other tissue.....	30 per cent. ad val.
	Lace, crochet, and the like.....kilo.	3,000
	Lace, guipure or cluny, or other kinds....do..	1,200

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Brazil (Revised, January 1, 1880).	Cotton—Continued.	*Reis.*
	Cotton cloth:	
	Lace, any kind for dresses, veils, and other articles	20 per cent. ad val.
	Ready-made clothing:	
	Shirts, of stocking net, coarse, for laborers ....dozen.	600
	Shirts, of stocking net, of other quality....dozen	2,500
	Shirts, of other tissue, plain or with folds....dozen.	4,400
	Shirts, of other tissue, with linen front..do..	8,900
	Stockings and socks:	
	Up to 20 centimeters long in the foot:	
	Of Scotch thread socks..doz. p'rs.	1,200
	Of Scotch thread stockings....do..	2,400
	Of other material, socks.....do..	300
	Of other material, stockings..do..	600
	Of more than 20 centimeters in the foot	Double the above.
	Drawers, of stocking net.....dozen.	2,500
	Drawers, of other tissue.....do..	3,700
	Collars, for shirts.....do..	550
	Fronts, for shirts, plain or with folds kilo.	1,800
	Cuffs, for shirts.....doz. p'rs.	850
	Dressing gowns.....kilo.	4,000
	Riding habits.....do..	5,000
	Articles, embroidered or ornamented.....	30 per cent. ad val.
	Articles, not specified, of lace.....	20 per cent. ad val.

Country.	Description.	*Official value.	†Rate of duty.
Argentine Republic (law of 1881).	Cotton Yarns:		*Per cent.*
	in spools of 46 meters.....dozen.	$0 09	25
	in spools of 92 meters.....do..	16	25
	in spools of 138 meters.....do..	23	25
	in spools of 184 meters.....do..	30	25
	from No. 10 to 30, in clews.....paquet.	25	25
	from No. 40 to 45, in clews.....do..	45	25
	for sewing sails.....100 kilos.	70 00	25
	Manufactures—		
	Alemanesques, or unbleached cotton:		
	60 to 70 centimeters ..... meter.	13	25
	135 to 165 centimeters.....do..	28	25
	Brilliantines, cotton:		
	To 90 centimeters, common .....do..	10	25
	To 90 centimeters, medium.....do..	12.5	25
	To 90 centimeters, fine..... ....do..	17.5	25
	Bombazines:		
	Worked, to 70 centimeters, common. .do..	12	25
	Worked, to 70 centimeters, medium..do..	16	25
	Worked, to 70 centimeters, fine .....do..	28	25
	Plain, to 70 centimeters, common.....do..	10	25
	Plain, to 70 centimeters, medium.....do..	13	25
	Plain, to 70 centimeters, fine .....do..	18	25
	Sheeting:		
	Cotton, white or colored.....kilo.	89	25
	Ticking:		
	Cotton, any width.....do..	69	25
	Mixed, 130 to 170 centimeters, common .....meter.	27.5	25
	Mixed, 130 to 170 centimeters, fine .. do..	35	25
	Mixed, 130 to 170 centimeters, superior .....do..	45	25
	Cambric:		
	Cotton, white or colored common.....do..	11	25
	Cotton, white or colored, fine.....do..	14	25
	Cotton, white or colored, superior....do..	25	25

* These duties are liquidated on a *tariff of valuations*, formed on the basis of the true value of the articles imported.

† These duties are recharged with the addition of 1 per cent. fixed by the third article of the law of the estimates (*Ley del Presupuesto*), which is as follows:

ART. III. All merchandise and products which, according to the customs law of 1881, are subject to duty, whether of import or export, shall pay an additional duty of 1 per cent. in accordance with existing laws.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Official value.	Rate of duty.
Argentine Republic (law of 1881).	Cotton—Continued.		*Per cent.*
	Manufactures—		
	Dimity, cotton, white or colored.....do..	12.5	25
	Prints, cotton, white or colored.....do..	50	25
	Nankin, cotton, white or colored.....do..	06	25
	Table-cloths, on declared value.....		25
	Cretons.....meter.	0 16 to 0 40	25
	Cretons, reps.....do..	60	25
	Damask:		
	Cotton, 120 to 150 centimeters.....do..	35	25
	Mixed, 120 to 150 centimeters.....do..	45	25
	Drilling, cotton.....kilo..	83	25
	Flannel:		
	Mixed, to 75 centimeters, ordinary.meter	17.5	25
	Mixed, to 75 centimeters, medium....do..	21	25
	Wool.....do..	0 22 to 0 42	25
	Mixed goods:		
	Cotton, wool, and silk for clothing, common.....do..	18	25
	Cotton, wool, and silk for clothing, fine....	25	25
	Cotton and silk for clothing, common.....meter.	11	25
	Cotton and silk for clothing, medium..do..	15	25
	Cotton and silk for clothing, fine....do..	25	25
	Cotton and silk for clothing, superior..do..	40	25
	Grenadines:		
	Cotton, 65 centimeters, common.....do..	10	25
	Cotton, 65 centimeters, medium.....do..	15	25
	Cotton, 65 centimeters, fine.....do..	25	25
	Canvas for bags, 85 to 95 centimeters.....do..	18	25
	Duck, North American, Nos. 1 to 10 ....do..	35	25
	Canvas duck for sails, North American do..	22	25
	Checks, cotton.....kilo..	1 40	25
	Checks, cotton shirting.....do..	87.5	25
	Merinos:		
	Cotton, 80 to 100 centimeters.....meter.	13	25
	Cotton and wool, 100 centimeters.....do..	18	25
	Muslins:		
	Cotton, to 75 centimeters, medium....do..	10	25
	Cotton, 75 centimeters, fine.....do..	12.5	25
	Cotton, to 132 centimeters, medium...do..	17	25
	Cotton, to 132 centimeters, fine.....do..	25	25
	Cotton, to 165 centimeters, medium..do..	25	25
	Cotton, 165 centimeters, fine.....do..	32	25
	Stockings, cotton, according to quality.dozen.	0 80 to 4 50	25
	Socks, cotton.....do..	0 75 to 4 00	25
	Organdies, cotton, 80 to 100 centimeters, fine..... meter.	30	25
	Cloth:		
	Wool and cotton, plain or gray, for soldiers' clothing, medium.....meter.	60	25
	Wool and cotton, plain or gray, for soldiers' clothing, fine.....meter.	75	25
	Towelings:		
	Cotton, 1 meter long, common.....dozen.	85	25
	Cotton, 1 meter long, medium.....do..	1 50	25
	Cotton, 1 meter long, fine.....do..	2 00	25
	Mixed, 1 meter long, common.....do..	1 50	25
	Mixed, 1 meter long, medium.....do..	2 00	25
	Mixed, 1 meter long, fine.....do..	3 00	25
	Domestics.....kilo..	80	25
	Drawers:		
	Ready-made, for women, cotton, common.....dozen.	6 00	40
	Ready-made, for women, cotton, fine..do..	10 00	40
	Ready-made, for men, cotton, common.....dozen.	4 00	40
	Ready-made, for men, fine.....do..	3 00	40
	Undershirts:	8 00	40
	Flannel or mixed, common.....dozen.	7 00	40

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Official value.	Rate of duty.
	Cotton—Continued.		
	Manufactures—		
	Undershirts:		
	Flannel or mixed, medium.....do..	12 00	40
	Flannel or mixed, fine.....do..	20 00	40
	Cotton or mixed, common.....do..	2 00	40
	Cotton or mixed, medium.....do..	3 50	40
	Cotton or mixed, fine.....do..	7 00	00
	Shirts, white cotton, according to quality.do..	4 00 to 8 00	40
	Collars:		
	Ordinary.....do..	1 60	40
	For ladies.....do..	2 00 to 7 00	40
	Umbrellas:		
	Cotton.....each	07	40
	Cords or ropes of cotton.....100 kilos.	60 00	25

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Chili.....	Cotton:	* Pes. Cts.
	Yarns:	
	In balls for sewing, white or colored, up to 3 threads.....kilo.	0 32.5
	In balls or hanks, for crocheting or darning.do..	0 50
	In balls or hanks for embroidery.....do..	0 75
	In reels, to 184 meters.....gross of reels	43.7 to 87.5
	In reels, for sewing, white or colored, up to 3 threads.....gross of reels.	43.7 to 87.5
	Same, to 6 threads.....do.....	68.7 to 1 pes. 37.5
	On card winders, for sewing, to 50 meters, gross of winders.....	10
	For sewing sacks.....kilo.	0 17.5
	Manufactures:	
	White, plain, coarse, of 20 threads, to 6 millimeters square.....kilo.	21.2 to 27.5
	White, plain, of over 20 threads, to 72 centimeters broad.....meter	3.5
	White, plain, of over 20 threads, to 82 centimeters broad.....meter.	4.2
	White, plain, of more than 20 warp threads, and up to 92 centimeters broad.....meter.	0 4.7
	White, plain, of more than 20 warp threads, and up to 102 centimeters broad.....meter.	0 5.5
	White, plain, of more than 20 warp threads, and up to 112 centimeters broad.....meter.	0 6
	White, plain, of more than 20 warp threads, and above 112 centimeters broad.....	25 per cent. ad val.
	White, figured or damasked (brilliants), ordinary quality up to 86 centimeters in breadth, meter.....	0 2.7
	White, figured or damask, better quality meter.....	0 3.7
	Colored, printed, figured or damasked (brilliants), ordinary quality, up to 86 centimeters in breadth.....meter	0 3.2
	Colored, printed, figured or damasked, better quality.....meter.	0 4.5
	Unbleached, plain (such as Osnaburg), of coarse and strong make, for sacking, of not more than 14 warp and woof threads to the 6 millimeters square, and up 75 centimeters in breadth.....meter.	0 1.9
	(Tocuyos), unbleached, plain, single, without color or distinction of class.....kilo.	0 20
	(Tocuyos), unbleached, twilled.....do..	0 22.5
	(Cotones), bleached, twilled.....do..	0 23.7
	Gray cloth, ticking, striped checks and blue cloth.....kilo	0 22.5
	For trousers, double or single, common and medium quality.....kilo.	0 25
	For mantas, up to 150 centimeters in breadth, meter.....	0 10

* 100 centimos make one Chilian peso = 91.2 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Chili	Cotton—Continued.	*Pes. Cts.*
	Manufactures:	
	Rough, medium quality, for towels or bathing sheets, for each centimeter in breadth..meter.	0 0.15
	Coverlets, knitted, common.....kilo.	0 27.5
	Coverlets, knitted, medium .....do..	0 37.5
	Coverlets, knitted, fine.....do..	25 per cent. ad val.
	Coverlets, quilted and other kinds.....do..	25 per cent. ad val.
	Dimities or Marsellas for waistcoats:	
	Common, up to 65 centimeters in breadth, meter.....	0 3.5
	Half quilted, up to 70 centimeters in breadth.....meter.	0 7.5
	Quilted or piqué, better quality, up to 70 centimeters in breadth.....meter.	0 15
	Superior quality, up to 70 centimeters in breadth.....meter.	0 22.5
	Nankeen, medium, of one color, plain or figured..... kilo.	0 27.5
	Damask, colored, for each centimeter of breadth .....meter.	0 0.075
	White, medium quality, for table-cloths, napkins, and towels:	
	Up to 60 centimeters in breadth .. meter.	0 3
	Above 60 centimeters, and up to 105 centimeters in breadth .....meter.	3.5 to 5.2 cts.
	Above 105 centimeters, and up to 150 centimeters in breadth.....meter.	5.7 to 8 cts.
	Above 150 centimeters, and up to 200 centimeters in breadth ... .meter.	9 to 13.7 cts.
	Table services, of damask (1 cloth of 2 meters 80 centimeters long, and 12 napkins, from 50 to 60 centimeters long) common to fine, the set.....	62.5 cts. to 1 pes. 25 cts.
	Napkins, of damask, of 50 to 60 centimeters long, common to medium .....doz.	0 20
	Napkins, of damask, of a better class.....do..	0 31.2
	Towels, medium quality; for each centimeter in length.....each	0 0.035
	Cambric muslin, plain, twilled, or figured..kilo.	0 27.5
	Flannel (of cotton) of one or more colors..do..	0 26.2
	Sateen, for shoes, &c., up to 70 centimeters in breadth .....meter.	0 4
	Gauze or muslin, white, with veins wrought in the weaving or damasked:	
	Common, up to 100 centimeters in breadth, meter	0 2
	Medium, up to 100 centimeters in breadth, meters.....	0 3
	Fine, up to 100 centimeters in breadth, meter.....	0 4
	Gauze, colored and embroidered	25 per cent. ad val.
	Grenadine, common to fine, from 55 to 65 centimeters in breadth..... .....meter.	3.7 to 6.2 cts.
	Muslin, batiste, cambric, printed or colored:	
	Up to 25 warp and woof threads in 6 millimeters square, and up to 85 centimeters in breadth.....meter.	0 2.2
	Above 25 and up to 52 warp and woof threads in 6 millimeters square, and up to 85 centimeters in breadth .... meter.	3 to 4.5 cts.
	Organdi, with satiny lines, white or colored:	
	Up to 27 warp and woof threads in 6 millimeters square, and up to 82 centimeters in breadth.....meter.	0 3.5
	Up to 33 warp and woof threads in 6 millimeters square, and up to 82 centimeters in breadth ..... meter	0 4.5
	Ginghams, common or medium, colored in checks or stripes:	
	Up to 55 centimeters in breadth....meter.	0 2
	Up to 70 centimeters in breadth .....do..	0 2.5
	Up to 75 centimeters in breadth .....do..	0 3
	Ginghams of superior quality.....	25 per cent. ad val.
	Lawn (of cotton):	
	Plain, of one color, up to 110 centimeters in breadth and up to 20 threads of warp and woof, in 6 millimeters square..meter.	0 1.5

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Chili	Cotton—Continued.	*Pes. Cts.*
	Manufactures:	
	Lawn (of cotton):	
	Plain, in one color, up to 110 centimeters in breadth and above 20 and up to 40 threads of warp and woof, in 6 millimeters square ..... meter.	2 to 4.5 cts.
	Plain, of one color, up to 110 centimeters in breadth and above 40 threads of warp and woof, in 6 millimeters ..... meter.	0 6.2
	Plain or figured, of printed colors, for dresses, up to 110 centimeters in breadth, meters	0 5
	Merino (of cotton), twilled, of one or more colors, up to 70 centimeters in breadth, meter	0 3
	Velveret or corduroy, for men's clothes, medium quality, up to 70 centimeters in breadth ..... meter.	6.2 to 7.5 cts.
	Tulle, white, plain; per centimeter of breadth, meter	0 00.05
	Tulle, white, figured; per centimeter of breadth ..... meter.	0 00.075
	Tarlatan, colored, up to 125 centimeters in breadth, common to fine ..... meter.	3 to 5 cts.
	Net tissues ..... kilo.	1 12.5
	Tapes and ribbons, plain white, up to 25 millimeters in breadth ..... hectometer.	0 6.2
	Tapes and ribbons, plain black, up to 25 millimeters in breadth ..... hectometer.	0 5
	Tapes and braid, black, twilled, medium quality, up to 25 millimeters in breadth, hectometer	0 8.7
	Tapes, colored, plain or figured, up to 51 millimeters in breadth, for braces, hectometer	0 22.5
	Tapes of cotton velvet ..... kilo.	1 0
	Tapes, double, up to 38 millimeters in breadth, for binding ..... hectometer.	0 25.0
	Haberdashery wares, laces, galloons, &c., kilog	0 75
	Haberdashery wares, fringes ..... kilo.	1 05
	Chintz or percals of cotton, all kinds .... kilo.	0 38.7
	Sateen, of one or more colors, for lining, common to fine; per centimeter of breadth, meter	0.05 to 0.1125 cts.
	Sateen, superfine, imitation sateen ..... meter.	25 per cent. ad val.
	Handkerchiefs or scarfs:	
	Printed in colors, with fringes, up to 95 centimeters in length ..... dozen.	0 37.5
	Printed in colors, with fringes, up to 165 centimeters in length ..... dozen.	0 87.5
	Twilled, striped or checked, of colored thread, with fringes, up to 95 centimeters in length ..... dozen.	0 37.5
	Twilled, above 95 and up to 165 centimeters in length, and weighing not more than 374 grams ..... dozen.	50 cts. to 1 pes. 75 cts.
	Handkerchiefs, other kinds:	
	Colored, common, from 23 to 30 warp and woof threads in 6 millimeters square:	
	Up to 40 centimeters in extreme length ..... dozen.	0 6.2
	Above 40 and up to 82 centimeters in extreme length ..... dozen.	8.7 to 18.7 cts.
	Medium quality, up to 35 warp and woof threads in 6 millimeters square:	
	Up to 40 centimeters in extreme length ..... dozen.	0 8.7
	Above 40 and up to 82 centimeters in extreme length ..... dozen	11.2 to 21.2 cts.
	Colored, in pieces or hemmed, exceeding 35 warp and woof threads to the 6 millimeters square:	
	Up to 40 centimeters in extreme length ..... dozen	0 11.2
	Above 40 and up to 82 centimeters in extreme length ..... dozen.	13.7 to 30 cts.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Chili	Cotton—Continued.	*Pes. Cts.*
	Manufactures:	
	Handkerchiefs, other kinds:	
	Of madras and palicate and imitation thereof, from 69 to 84 centimeters long.....dozen.	0 20
	Imitation silk foulards and cambric:	
	Up to 60 centimeters in extreme length.....dozen.	0 15
	Above 60 and up to 85 centimeters in extreme length.....dozen.	20 to 28.7 cts.
	Turkey red, up to 70 centimeters in extreme length.....dozen	0 22.5
	Turkey red, above 70 and up to 90 centimeters in extreme length.....dozen.	27.5 to 37.5 cts.
	Superior, with or without lace.....	25 per cent. ad val.
	Lace, figured, common, assorted breadths up to 10 centimeters.....hectometer.	0 27.5
	Lace, figured, medium, assorted breadths up to 5 centimeters.....meter.	0 0.75
	Lace, figured, medium, assorted breadths up to 10 centimeters.....meter.	0 1.5
	Lace, imitation guipure or crochet, assorted breadths up to 5 centimeters.....meter.	0 1
	Lace, imitation guipure or crochet, assorted breadths up 10 centimeters.....meter.	0 3.5
	Lace, fine imitation valenciennes and other kinds.....	25 per cent. ad val.
	Ready-made clothing:	
	Socks for men, common to fine..doz. pairs.	17.5 cts. to 1 pes.
	Socks for men, superfine.....	25 per cent. ad val.
	Socks for children, common to fine, dozen pairs.....	12.5 to 50 cts.
	Stockings:	
	Bleached or not, for women, coarse to common.....dozen pairs.	15 to 20 cts.
	Bleached or not, for women, medium to fine.....dozen pairs.	27.5 cts. to 1 pes.
	Bleached or not, for women, superfine.	25 per cent. ad val.
	Unbleached, white or colored, for men, common to fine. .....dozen pairs.	22.5 cts. to 1 pes. 12.5 cts.
	Unbleached, white or colored, for men, superfine .....dozen pairs.	25 per cent. ad val.
	White or colored, for children, common to fine.....dozen pairs.	13.7 to 62.5 cts.
	Drawers, knitted, for men, common to fine.....dozen.	1 pes. 22.5 cts. to 3 pes. 15 cts.
	Drawers, knitted, for bathing .....do..	0 70
	Drawers of cotton cloth, for men, common to fine.....dozen.	1 pes. 40 cts. to 3 pes. 15 cts.
	Drawers of cotton cloth, for women, medium to fine.....dozen.	2 pes. 10 cts. to 3 pes. 15 cts.
	Vests, knitted, for men, common to fine, dozen.....	87.5 cts. to 2 pes. 80 cts.
	Vests, knitted, of Scotch thread....dozen.	3 50
	Shirts, white or colored, for men, common to fine.....dozen.	1 pes. 40 cts. to 3 pes. 15 cts.
	Shirts, striped or variegated, for men, common to fine.....dozen	1 pes. 22.5 cts. to 1 pes. 75 cts.
	Shirts of Oxford percal and the like, for medium and fine.....dozen.	3 pes. 50 cts. to 4 pes. 90 cts.
	Shirts for boys .....do..	1 pes. 5 cts. to 2 pes. 10 cts.
	Chemises, plain, common to fine.....do..	2 pes. 80 cts. to 4 pes. 90 cts.
	Chemises, plain, superfine.....	35 per cent. ad val.
	Camisoles, for women, with sleeves or ruffs, plain or embroidered, common to fine.....dozen.	1 pes. 75 cts. to 4 pes. 20 cts.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
		Pes. Cts.
Chili	Cotton—Continued.	
	Manufactures:	
	Ready-made clothing:	
	Petticoats:	
	Cut in lengths, embroidered, common and medium ..... dozen.	6 30
	Cut in lengths, embroidered, fine	35 per cent. ad val.
	Made up, plain, common to fine. dozen.	3 pes. 15 cts. to 6 pes. 30 cts.
	Made up, with tucks or scallops, common to medium ..... dozen.	4 pes. 90 cts. to 7 pes.
	Made up with tucks or scallops, fine..	35 per cent. ad val.
	Collars for men ..... dozen.	0 35
	Waistcoats, of piqué, common to fine. do..	3 pes. 15 cts. to 8 pes. 40 cts.
	Jackets, knitted, for men ..... do..	3 15
	Trousers, of corduroy or velveteen, common to fine ..... dozen.	6 pes. 30 cts. to 9 pes. 45 cts.
	Trousers, of cotton cloth, common to fine, dozen	2 pes. 80 cts. to 6 pes. 30 cts.
Uruguay	Cotton yarn and manufactures	*12 per cent. ad val.

* The Uruguayan patacon = 94.9 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
China*	Cotton:	
	Yarns and manufactures	†5 per cent. ad val.
	Lekin (transit, internal, tax)	†2½ per cent. ad val.
Japan	Cotton:	
	Raw	§3½ per cent. ad val.
	Yarns: thread	4 per cent. ad val.
	not specified	5 per cent. ad val.
	Manufactures:	
	Shirting, gray	6 per cent. ad val.
	Shirting, white	4½ per cent. ad val.
	Shirting, dyed	5½ per cent. ad val.
	Shirting, twilled	4½ per cent. ad val.
	Cotton drills	4½ per cent. ad val.
	Cotton brocade	2½ per cent. ad val.
	Lawns	6 per cent. ad val.
	T-cloth	4 per cent. ad val.
	Cotton velvets	4 per cent. ad val.
	Cotton satin	6 per cent. ad val.
	Printed cotton and chintzes	3½ per cent. ad val.
	Taffachelass	5 per cent. ad val.
	Turkey reds	4 per cent. ad val.
	Ginghams	2½ per cent. ad val.
	Cotton goods, Chinese	5 per cent ad val.
	Cotton goods, not specified	3 per cent. ad val.
	Handkerchiefs	2 per cent. ad val.
	Singlets and drawers	2 per cent. ad val.
	Table cloth	3½ per cent. ad val.
	Curtains	5 per cent. ad val.
	Mixed goods	5 per cent. ad val.
India	Cotton yarns:	
	Twist, mule, No. 32 and under	Free.
	Twist, water, No. 20 and under	Free.
	Twist, other kinds	‖3½ per cent. ad val.
	Sewing thread, white and colored, on cards and reels of 100 yards	5 per cent. ad val.
	Manufactures:	
	Gray unbleached, not containing yarns above thirties	Free.
	All other, including apparel, haberdashery, and hosiery	5 per cent. ad val.
Ceylon	Cotton yarns and manufactures	5 per cent. ad val.
Siam	ditto	3 per cent. ad val.
Straits Settlements	ditto	Free.
Syria	ditto	8 per cent. ad val.
Labuan	ditto	Free.
Hong-Kong	ditto	Free.

* The terms fixed by the new treaty with the United States are that no other rates of duties, &c., shall be imposed upon products and manufactures of the United States than are imposed upon any other nation or Chinese subjects.

† Making a tax of 7½ per cent. ad valorem, and is sometimes increased to 10 per cent. or more by imposition of the "Lekin" tax. The following table gives, as clearly as possible, an insight into Chinese cotton tariff, given in Haikuan taels, and deductions also made in the rates of yarn and cotton for the excess of weight, amounting to 10 per cent., allowed by the native custom-house:

	Foreign custom-house.				Native custom-house.			
	T.	*m.*	*c.*	*c.*	*T.*	*m.*	*c.*	*c.*
Yarns, per picul	0	7	0	0	0	3	7	8
Cotton, do	0	3	5	0	0	1	7	0
Shirtings, per piece	0	0	8	0	0	0	3	6
Drills, 40 yards, do	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	6
Drills, 30 yards, do	0	0	7	5	0	0	3	6
T-cloths, 36 inches, do	0	0	8	0	0	0	3	6
T-cloths, 32 inches, do	0	0	4	0	0	0	3	6

‡ 1 Chinese tael = $1.38 cents United States money.

§ 1 Japanese yen = 88.8 cents United States money. This percentage is taken as the average percentage of an ad valorem tariff for three years past on the total customs charges.

‖ 16 Indian annas make 1 rupee = 39 cents United States money.

AUSTRALASIA.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
New Zealand	Cotton:	
	Yarns	Free.
	Manufactures:	
	Bookbinder's cloth	Free.
	Cord and tape	*15 per cent. ad val.
	Collars and cuffs	15 per cent. ad val.
	Apparel and ready-made clothing, and all articles made up wholly or in part from silk, cotton, linen, or wool, or of other or of mixed materials	15 per cent. ad val.
	Bagging and bags not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad val.
	Cotton counterpanes	15 per cent. ad val.
	Cotton manufactures not otherwise enumerated, and all articles made of cotton mixed with any other material	15 per cent. ad val.
	Cotton waste	Free.
New South Wales	Cotton yarns and manufactures	Free.
Victoria	Cotton yarns, spun	11*s.* 3*d.*
	Twine, except sewing or seaming	14*s.*
	Manufactures:	
	Articles of apparel, whether wholly or partly made up (except hosiery): Aprons, breeches, coats, capes, cloaks, costumes, collars, cuffs, sleeves and sets, crinolines, camisoles, dresses, furs made up, frocks, fronts, infants' hoods and hats, infants' swathes and bibs, jackets, knickerbocker suits or portions of suits, leggings, mantles, muslin and net scarfs, night dresses, pants, pelisses, petticoats, pinafores, ruffles, robes, shirts of all kinds, skirts, stays, shawls, trousers, tunics, vests, wristbands, men's, women's, and children's underclothing, ties, scarfs, neckerchiefs, and all articles used for the like purpose	25 per cent. ad val.
	Oil-cloths, &c	20 per cent. ad val.
	Twine (except sewing or seaming of hemp, cotton, or flax)	1½*d.* per pound.
	Umbrellas, parasols, and sunshades:	
	Parasols and sunshades (plain) up to 18½ inches in length of ribs, including covers made up wholly or in part of cotton, woolen, or other material, not otherwise specified	6*d.* each.
	Umbrellas over 18½ inches, fancy parasols or sunshades under 18½ inches in length of ribs, including covers made up wholly or in part of cotton, woolen, or other material, not otherwise specified	1*s.* each.
	Cordage (except of galvanized and other iron and steel cordage), including all housing and seizing lines and spun yarn	11*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
South Australia	Cotton yarns:	
	Spun, cwt.	3*s.*
	Knitting and crochet	10 per cent. ad val.
	Sewing thread	Free.
	Manufactures:	
	Blankets, rugs, quilts, towels, drapery, hosiery, millinery, gloves, apparel, and slops and blind nets	10 per cent. ad val.
	Other kinds	Free.
Western Australia	Cotton:	
	Yarns, all kinds, and manufactures, all kinds	10 per cent. ad val.
Queensland	Cotton:	
	Yarns, cwt.	9*s.* 4*d.*
	Twine, other kinds	5 per cent. ad val.
	Manufactures:	
	All kinds	5 per cent. ad val.
Tasmania	Cotton:	
	Yarns:	
	Candle-wick	Free.
	All other	10 per cent. ad val
	Manufactures:	
	Sheets and rugs, cub. ft.	3*d.*
	All drapery, haberdashery, hosiery, millinery, and all goods wholly or partly made of cotton, cub. ft.	5*d.*
Fiji	Cotton:	
	Yarns	Free.
	Manufactures	10 per cent. ad val.

* The money of all Australasia is pounds sterling—$4.86.6 United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.	
			*Fl. Kr.
Austria (law of January 1, 1879).	Cottons:		
	a. Raw, carded, colored; refuse	Free.	
	b. Wadding .....100 kilos.		5 00
	Cotton yarn (also mixed with linen):		
	a. Yarn up to No. 12 English, single or double:		
	1. Raw .....100 kilos		6 00
	2. Bleached or colored ..... do..		10 00
	b. Yarn over No. 12 to No. 30 English, single or double:		
	1. Raw .....100 kilos.		8 00
	2. Bleached or colored .....do..		12 00
	c. Yarn over No. 30 English, single or double:		
	1. Raw .....100 kilos.		12 00
	2. Bleached or colored ..... do..		16 00
	d. Yarn, three or more twisted threads, raw, bleached, or colored; yarn prepared for the retail trade .....100 kilos.		20 00
	e. Wicks, unwoven, also coated with wax do..		12 00
	Cotton goods, *i. e.*, woven and knit goods of cotton or cotton and linen, also in connection with metallic threads or spun glass, though without the admixture of silk, wool, or other animal hair:		
	a. Ordinary, *i. e.*, textures from yarn No. 50 and under, also mapped or dressed:		
	aa. Ordinary plain, also, twilled, 38 threads or less to 5 square milimeters:		
	1. Raw .....100 kilos		32 00
	2. Bleached or colored, Turkey red excepted ..... 100 kilos		40 00
	3. Woven in several colors, printed or colored Turkey red .....100 kilos.		60 00
	bb. Ordinary figured, 38 threads to 5 square milimeters or less:		
	1. Raw ..... 100 kilos.		40 00
	2. Bleached or colored, Turkey red excepted .....100 kilos.		50 00
	3. Woven in several colors, printed or colored Turkey red .....100 kilos		70 00
	cc. Ordinary coarse, plain, or figured, more than 38 threads to 5 square milimeters:		
	1. Raw .....100 kilos.		50 00
	2. Bleached or colored, Turkey red excepted ....100 kilos.		60 00
	3. Woven in several colors, printed or colored Turkey red .....100 kilos		80 00
	b. Fine, plain, or figured textures of yarn, over No. 50 to No. 100, inclusive:		
	1. Raw .....100 kilos		60 00
	2. Bleached or colored, woven in several colors or printed ... .100 kilos.		90 00
	c. Finest, plain or figured, *i. e.*, textures of yarn finer than No. 100, tulle, bobbinet, petinets (curtain stuffs and furniture nets under *d* excepted), laces, woven goods embroidered; all goods in connection with metallic threads or spun glass..... ..... 100 kilos		150 00
	d. Velvets and velvet-like fabrics, cut or uncut; curtain-stuffs and furniture nets of the bobbinet kind; ribbons, fringes, buttons, and knit goods.....100 kilos		70 00
	e. Lamp-wicks, woven; netting; girths; nets and ropes, coarse; feeding-nets, stiffened.....100 kilos		24 00
	RATES OF TARE OF GROSS WEIGHT.		
	Cotton:		
	Raw:		
	In boxes and casks	18 per cent.	
	In baskets.....	13 per cent.	
	In bales	7 per cent.	
	Yarn:		
	In boxes and casks	18 per cent.	
	In baskets	13 per cent.	
	In bales	7 per cent.	

* An Austrian florin is = 40.7 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
	RATES OF TARE OF GROSS WEIGHT—Continued.	*Fl. Kr.*
Austria (law of January 1, 1879).	Cotton—Continued.	
	Cotton goods:	
	In boxes and casks	18 per cent.
	In baskets	13 per cent.
	In bales	7 per cent.
Belgium (law of May 1, 1881)	Cotton:	*Frs. Cts.*
	Yarns:	
	Unbleached and bleached, measuring to the demi-kilogram:	
	20,000 meters or less ..... 100 kilos.	15 00
	20,000 to 30,000 meters ..... do..	20 00
	30,000 to 40,000 meters ..... do..	30 00
	40,000 to 65,000 meters ..... do..	40 00
	Dyed or woven, measuring to the demi-kilog:	
	20,000 meters or less ..... 100 kilos.	25 00
	20,000 to 30,000 meters ..... do..	30 00
	30,000 to 40,000 meters ..... do..	40 00
	40,000 to 65,000 meters ..... do..	50 00
	Upwards of 65,000 meters ..... do..	10 00
	Manufactures:	
	Unbleached, plain, twilled, and ticks:	
	1st class, weighing 11 kilograms and above per 100 square meters (20½ pounds or more to the 100 square yards):	
	Of 35 threads and less to the 5 square milimeters ..... 100 kilos	50 00
	Of 36 threads and over ..... do..	80 00
	2d class, weighing from 7 to 11 kilograms exclusively per 100 square meters (12⅞ pounds to 20½ pounds to the 100 square yards):	
	Of 35 threads and less to the 5 square millimeters ..... 100 kilos	60 00
	Of 36 to 43 threads ..... do..	100 00
	Of 44 threads and above ..... do..	200 00
	3d class, weighing from 3 to 7 kilograms exclusively per 100 square meters (5½ to 12⅞ pounds to the 100 square yards):	
	Of 27 threads and less to the 5 square milimeters ..... 100 kilos.	80 00
	Of 28 to 35 threads ..... do..	120 00
	Of 36 to 43 threads ..... do..	190 00
	Of 44 threads and above ..... do..	300 00
	Bleached (2):	
	1st class, 11 kilograms and upwards:	
	Of 35 threads and less	57 50
	Of 36 threads and upwards	92 00
	2d class, from 7 to 11 kilograms exclusively:	
	Of 35 threads and less	69 00
	Of 36 to 43 threads	115 00
	Of 44 threads and upwards	230 00
	3d class, from 3 to 7 kilograms exclusively:	
	Of 27 threads and less	92 00
	Of 28 to 35 threads	138 00
	Of 36 to 43 threads	218 50
	Of 44 threads and upwards	345 00
	Dyed (2):	
	1st class, 11 kilograms and upwards:	
	Of 35 threads and less	75 00
	Of 36 threads and upwards	105 00
	2d class, from 7 to 11 kilograms exclusively:	
	Of 35 threads and less	85 00
	Of 36 to 43 threads	125 00
	Of 44 threads and upwards	225 00
	3d class, from 3 to 7 kilograms exclusively:	
	Of 27 threads and less	105 00
	Of 28 to 35 threads	145 00
	Of 36 to 43 threads	215 00
	Of 44 threads and upwards	325 00
	Printed	15 per cent. ad val.
	Cotton velvets:	
	Made as silk velvets:	
	Unbleached ..... 100 kilos	85 00
	Dyed or printed ..... do..	110 00
	Other kinds, cords, moleskins, &c.:	
	Unbleached ..... 100 kilos	60 00
	Dyed or printed ..... do..	85 00

* Belgian franc is = 19.3 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
		Frs. Cts.
Belgium (law of May 1, 1881).	Cotton—Continued.	
	Manufactures:	
	Quiltings, dimities, stripes, checks, damasks, and brilliants, weighing 3 kilograms and above per 100 square meters.....100 kilos.	15 per cent. ad val.
	All other tissues and wares	10 per cent. ad val.
	Clothing and other ready-made articles	10 per cent. ad val.
	Hosiery, haberdashery, tapes, and ribbons	10 per cent. ad val.
	Lace and blonde	5 per cent. ad val.
	Cotton tissues mixed with silk, if the cotton predominates in weight.	10 per cent. ad val., or, at the option of the importer, 300 francs per 100 kilos.
	Cotton tissues mixed with other materials, if the cotton predominates in weight	10 per cent. ad val.
Denmark	Cotton:	
	Yarn:	**Rd. Sk.*
	Undyed.....Pound.	0 03
	Dyed, and mixed with.....do.	0 08
	Manufactures:	
	Unbleached, containing less than 24 threads to the square ½ inch, or weighing 44 quints (3¾ pounds adv.) or above to square ell (24¾ inches)	0 02
	Other kinds	0 06
	Sail cloth, tarpaulin cloth, and drugget, weighing 44 quints and above, per square ell	0 06
	Meshy embroidery cloth, canvas, stiff nets, and other open-worked, gummed, or stiffened wares, girths, bands and tapes, and lamp-wicks	0 16
	Open and transparent goods, mixed or not; lace, haberdashery, trimmings, and button-maker's ware	0 48
	Other kinds:	
	Printed, knitted, and velvet stuffs	0 32
	Dyed in colors, not printed	0 24
	Of one color, also damasks, drills, &c	0 20
	Undyed plain goods, and wadding	0 12
	Ready-made clothing:	
	When not lined or trimmed, or when such is not liable to higher duty than material of which made	As material of which chiefly composed with addition of 50 per cent.
	When same is liable to higher duty than material of which made	As material of which chiefly composed with addition of 100 per cent.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.	
		New tariff.	Old tariff.†
		Frs. Cts. (Per 100 kilos.)	‡ *Frs. Cts.* (Per 100 kilos.)
France (law of May 7, 1881).	Cotton yarns:		
	Simple yarn, unbleached, measuring by kilograms:		
	20,500 meters or less	18. 50	15. 00 to 415. 00.
	20 500 to 30,500 meters	25. 00	
	30,500 to 40,500 meters	37. 00	
	40,500 to 50,500 meters	50. 00	
	50,500 to 60,500 meters	62. 00	

*16 Danish skillings make a Danish mark, and 6 marks make a rigsdaler = 54. 6 cents United States money. A crown (or krone) = 26. 8 cents United States money.

†Specifications of old tariff changed in the new.

‡1 French franc = 19.3 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.	
		New tariff.	Old tariff.*
		Frs. Cts. (Per 100 kilos.)	*Frs. Cts.* (Per 100 kilos.)
France (law of May 7, 1881).	Cotton yarns—Continued.		
	Simple yarn, unbleached, measuring by kilograms:		
	60,500 to 70,500 meters	74.00	15.00 to 415.00
	70,500 to 80,500 meters	87.00	
	80,500 to 90,500 meters	112.00	
	90,500 to 100,500 meters	124.00	
	100,500 to 110,500 meters	149.00	
	110,500 to 120,500 meters	174.00	
	120,500 to 130,500 meters	198.00	
	130,500 to 140,500 meters	248.00	
	140,500 to 170,500 meters	310.00	
	170,500 meters	372.00	
	Simple cotton yarn:		
	Bleached	Duties on single unbleached yarn increased 15 per cent.	
	Dyed or chiné	For ordinary dyes, 30 centimes per kilogram in addition to the duty on unbleached yarn. For dyes in Turkey red, 60 centimes per kilogram in addition to the duty on unbleached yarn.	
	Twisted in two or three strands:		
	Unbleached	Duty on simple yarn augmented 30 per cent.	840.00 to 960.00 Some prohibited.
	Bleached	Duty on twisted unbleached yarn augmented 15 per cent.	
	Dyed in common dyes or chiné	30 centimes per kilogram over and above the duty on twisted unbleached yarn.	
	Dyed in Turkey red	60 centimes over and above the duty on twisted unbleached yarn.	
	Twisted in twists of four strands or more, bleached, unbleached, or dyed:		
	Single twist	15 centimes per 1,000 meters of simple yarn.	
	Double twist or cabled	2 centimes per 1,000 meters simple yarn.	
	Made up in balls, spools, skeins, cards, or other forms, regardless of the number of strands, of bleaching, unbleaching, dyeing, simple twist.	2 centimes per 1,000 meters simple yarn.	
	Doubled twisted or cabled	25 centimes per 1,000 meters.	840.00 to 960.00
	Chains warped in cotton yarn:		
	Unbleached	Duty on the yarn of which they are composed augmented by 30 per cent.	
	Bleached	Duty on the chains warped, unbleached, augmented by 15 per cent.	
	Dyed	For ordinary dyes, 30 per cent. per kilogram over and above the duty on the chains warped, unbleached. For dyes in Turkey red, 60 centimes per kilogram over and above the duty on chains warped unbleached.	

Specifications of old tariff changed in the new.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.	
		New tariff.	Old tariff.*
		Frs. Cts. (Per 100 kilos.)	*Frs. Cts.* (Per 100 kilos.)
France (law of May 7, 1881).	Cotton yarns—Continued.		
	Mixed, the cotton predominating in weight.	Same duty as that of pure cotton yarn.	
	Cotton manufactures:		
	Fabrics of pure cotton, unbleached, showing warp and woof in spaces of 5 square millimeters, and weighing—		
	From 11 kilograms and over to the 100 square meters—		
	30 threads or under	62.00	
	31 threads or over	100.00	
	From 7 to 11 kilograms—		
	35 threads or less	95.00	
	36 threads to 43 threads	125.00	
	44 threads and over	250.00	
	From 5 to 7 kilograms—		
	27 threads and less	100.00	
	28 to 35 threads	145.00	
	36 to 43 threads	235.00	
	44 threads and over	300.00	
	From 3 to 5 kilograms—		
	27 threads or less	230.00	
	28 threads to 35 threads	300.00	
	36 threads to 43 threads	410.00	
	44 threads and over	625.00	
	Under 3 kilograms	670.00	
	In counting the threads in the warp and woof the fractions of threads are not counted.		
	Fabrics of pure cotton, bleached	Same duties as on the unbleached increased by 15 per cent.	
	Fabrics of pure cotton dyed in Turkey red.	Duties on unbleached augmented 60 francs per 100 kilograms.	100.00; with percentage ad valorem added, and in several specifications prohibited.
	The same, other dyes	Duties on unbleached augmented 30 francs per 100 kilograms.	
	Fabrics of pure cotton prints on other ground than Turkey red are liable to the duties on unbleached fabrics, according to sort, augmented as follows:		
	For linings (100 meters long by not more than 1 meter wide).	2.50	
	For other prints (100 meters long by not more than 1 meter wide) of one and two colors.	3.75	
	For other prints (100 meters long by not more than 1 meter wide) of from three to six colors.	6.25	
	For all other prints (100 meters long by not more than 1 meter wide) of seven or more colors.	10.00	
	(When the width of the goods exceeds one meter the discriminating duty for the print shall be proportionately increased.)		
	Fabrics of pure cotton printed on ground of Turkey red.	Duties on unbleached goods according to sort, augmented—1st, by 60 francs per 100 kilograms; and, 2d, by discriminating duties applicable to other printed goods.	
	Cotton velvets, écru	143.00	
	Cotton velvets, dyed or printed	174.00	
	Cotton velvets, others (cords, moleskins, &c.) écrus.	100.00	

*Specifications of old tariff changed in the new.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.	
		New tariff.	Old tariff.*
		Frs. Cts. (Per 100 kilos.)	*Frs. Cts.* (Per 100 kilos.)
France (law of May 7, 1881).	Cotton manufactures—Continued.		
	Cotton velvets, dyed or printed	131. 00	
	Fabrics manufactured in whole or part of dyed yarn.	Duty on écrus augmented 60 francs per 100 kilograms.	
	Brillantes, écrus, and façonnes	Duties on plain, unbleached goods, according to sort, augmented by 10 per cent.	
	Covers, quilts, piqués, and reps, weighing over 18 kilograms per 100 square meters.	125. 00	
	The same, weighing 18 kilograms or less the 100 square meters.	180. 00	
	Dimities, damasks, and table-cloths, unbleached.	114. 00	
	Guipure lace for furniture, unbleached.	185. 00	
	(The foregoing articles (brillantes, piqués, &c.), if bleached or dyed, shall be liable to the duty on unbleached goods, augmented by the discriminating duties applicable to bleaching or dyeing.)		
	Quilts	68. 00	
	Hosiery (cotton or chintz thread):		
	Gloves	1, 000. 00	
	Other, cut and seamless	125. 00	
	Proportioned, or with foot proportioned.	300. 00	
	Passementerie	236. 00	
	Ribbons, of pure cotton	124. 00	
	Ribbons, mixed with wool, most cotton.	150. 00	
	Tulle, coarse-spindle, seven stitches to the square centimeter.	496. 00	100.00; with percentage added, and in several specifications prohibited.
	Tulle, fine-spindle, seven stitches or more to the square centimeter.	700. 00	
	Tambouring and worked gauze	620. 00	
	Laces and blondes, machine-made, spun, or hand-made.	495. 00	
	Curtains, embroidered muslin, unframed, weighing under 10 kilograms to the 100 square meters.	300. 00	
	Curtains weighing 10 kilograms and over; also, framed, separate, and by the piece, regardless of weight to the 100 square meters.	600. 00	
	Curtains of tulle application, of grenadine, and of embroidered tulle.	900. 00	
	Muslins, embossed or crotchet, embroidered for furniture or dress, unbleached.	360. 00	
	Bleached muslin, embroidered or embossed, shall be subject to the duty on the unbleached.	Augmented by 15 per cent.	
	Machine or hand embroideries	800. 00	
	Lampwicks and plaited candlewicks.	74. 00	
	Oil-cloths for packing	8. 00	
	Oil-cloths for furniture, hangings, or other use.	30. 00	
	Oil-cloths, moleskin leather	30. 00	
	Cotton mixed goods, most cotton:		
	Silk stuff, silk and cotton flock	372. 00	
	Other stuffs	124. 00	
	Passementerie and ribbons, silk and cotton.	372. 00	
	Other	Same duties as on pure cotton fabrics.	
	Strips in thread or yarn twisted for weaving,	50. 00	

* Specifications of old tariff changed in the new.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of tarift.	
		U. S. dollars.	*Marks.**
Germany (Law of April 1, 1880.)	Cotton:		
	a. Raw, carded, combed, dyed	Free.	
	b. Wadding ..... 100 kilos.	0 35	1.50
	c. Manufactured yarn, unmixed, or mixed with linen, silk, wool, or other vegetable or animal spinning material:		
	1. Single twist, raw, up to No. 17, English .100 kilos.	2 85	12.00
	Above No. 17 to No. 45, English .....do..	4 28	18.00
	Above No. 45 to No. 60, English .....do..	5 71	24.00
	Above No. 60 to No. 79, English .....do..	7 14	30.00
	Above No. 79 .....do..	8 56	36.00
	2. Double twist, raw, up to No. 17, English...do..	3 57	15.00
	Above No. 17 to No. 45, English .....do..	4 99	21.00
	Above No. 45 to No. 60, English .....do..	6 42	27.00
	Above No. 60 to No. 79, English .....do..	7 85	33.00
	Above No. 79 .....do..	9 28	39.00
	3. Single or double twist, bleached or dyed, up to No. 17, English .....100 kilos.	5 71	24.00
	Above No. 17 to No. 45, English .....do..	7 14	30.00
	Above No. 45 to No. 60, English .....do..	8 56	36.00
	Above No. 60 to No. 79, English .....do..	9 99	42.00
	Above No. 79, English .....do...	11 42	48.00
	4. Treble or more twist, raw, bleached, dyed, 100 kilos	11 42	48.00
	5. Twisted sewing thread .....100 kilos.	16 66	70.00
	6. Wicks, unplaited .....do..	5 71	24.00
	d. Goods of cotton alone or cotton with metal thread, unmixed with silk, wool, or other animal hair, as mentioned under No. 41:		
	1. Raw (of raw yarn), close tissue, excepting cut velvets; net lace, raw and not figured .100 kilos.	19 04	80.00
	2. Unbleached, close tissue; also finished, excepting cut velvets .....100 kilos.	23 80	100.00
	3. All close tissues not included in Nos. 1, 2, and 6; raw (made of raw yarn) light fabrics, excepting window-curtains, not coming under No. 1, hosiery, laces, trimmings, and buttons; also goods spun in part with metal threads, 100 kilos	28 56	120.00
	4. Curtain stuffs, bleached and finished .100 kilos	54 78	230.00
	5. All light fabrics, as jaconet, muslin, tulle, marly, gauze, not provided for under Nos. 1, 3, 4 .....100 kilos.	47 60	200.00
	6. Laces, and all embroideries .....do..	59 50	250.00
	1. Cotton fishing-nets, new .....do..	71	3.00
	2. Very coarse tissues of raw spun-cotton waste, also mixed with other materials, or single-dyed threads, in pieces not over 50 centimeters square, having the appearance of gray packing linen and used for press-cloths, scrubbing-cloths, &c. 100 kilos.	2 38	10.00
	3. Raw textures for emery linen and for emery-cloth factories, by special permit, under control; likewise emery cloth	Free.	
	Oil-cloth:		
	a. Coarse, not printed (packing cloth) ..100 kilos.	2 85	12.00
	b. Other oil-cloth; also leather cloth, bookbinders' cloth .....100 kilos.	7 14	30.00
	c. Waxed muslin, waxed taffeta .....do..	11 90	50.00
	Manufactures, also mixed with cotton, linen, or metallic threads:		
	1. Cloth selvage	Free.	
	2. Coarse, not printed, not dyed, felts .100 kilos.	71	3.00
	3. Rugs, blankets, containing dyed or not dyed yarn of cattle hair ..... 100 kilos.	5 71	24.00
	4. Not printed felts, not belonging under No. XX; not printed felt goods and hosiery, and carpets, rugs, also printed; of wool or other animal hair, exclusive of cattle and horse hair; also mixed with vegetable fibers and other spinning materials .....100 kilos	23 80	100.00
	5. Unprinted cloths and stuffs not included under No. VII .....100 kilos.	32 13	135.00
	6. Printed goods, not carpets or rugs, ribbon and button-makers' goods, plushes, tissues, mixed with metallic threads .....100 kilos.	35 70	150.00
	7. Laces, tulle, and embroideries; also woven shawls of three or more colors..... 100 kilos.	71 40	300.00
	8. Woven shawls of five or more colors .100 kilos.	107 10	450.00
Great Britain	Cotton yarns and manufactures	Free.	
Gibraltar	Cotton yarns and manufactures	Free.	

* Mark = 23.8 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Greece	Cotton:	*Dr. lep.
	Seed	Free.
	Raw, cleansed or uncleansed	Free.
	Yarns:	
	Single or twisted, bleached or unbleached, cwt.	0 45
	Sewing-thread, unbleached, do.	0 45
	Single or twisted, dyed and bleached sewing-thread	70
	Manufactures:	
	Calicoes of all kinds, dimities and twills, unbleached, cwt.	0 55
	Calicoes, bleached, dyed or not ("Bogassis"), and pieces thereof, and striped cloth for sailors (duck), cwt.	0 75
	Madapolams and similar stuffs for linings, &c., tangibs, mol-mols, &c., cotton plush, ducks, and drills, cwt.	0 75
	Batiste, jaconets, tarlatans, gauzes, and all muslins, with the exception of those for curtains or linings, cwt.	3 00
	Net and other similar stuffs for curtains, do.	2 00
	Tulle, do.	6 00
	Sailcloth, do.	0 30
	All cotton tissues not otherwise enumerated, cwt.	1 00
	Velveteens and fine canvas, do.	2 00
	Tapes and ribbons, pure, or mixed with linen, cwt.	2 00
	Tapes and ribbons, mixed with wool, do.	4 00
	Tapes and ribbons, mixed with silk, do.	7 00
	Haberdashery, &c.:	
	Ladies' caps, of tulle, muslins, cambric, &c., each.	0 20
	Men's caps, of common cotton stuffs, of cotton velvet, and knitted caps, cwt.	1 50
	Caps for children, of tulle or muslin, plain or trimmed with silk ribbons, dozen.	1 50
	Bernous, cwt.	10 00
	Waistbands of pure cotton, including flannels and drawers of cotton tricotage, cwt.	1 50
	Waistbands, mixed with wool, do.	3 50
	Shawls, scarfs, and handkerchiefs of cotton of coarse grain; also small cotton shawls coming from England, and scarfs and handkerchiefs, cwt.	1 50
	Shawls, richly embroidered	15 per cent. ad val.
	Chemisettes or collars of tulle, batiste, muslin, cambric, &c., each.	0 70
	Stays, dozen.	7 00
	Counterpanes, fine, cwt.	1 50
	Counterpanes, coarse, do.	0 50
	Lace, imitation, drachme.	0 15
	Lace edgings, do.	0 01
	Lace, common, do.	0 01
	Elastic, cwt.	1 25
	Cuffs for ladies, plain, or embroidered with cotton or silk, or trimmed with lace of the same material, pair.	0 50
	Men's cuffs, dozen.	0 60
	Collars, with shirt-fronts, do.	1 50
	Collars, without cuffs, do.	0 20
	Cotton handkerchiefs, plain, or dyed in oil, cwt.	1 50
	Cotton handkerchiefs, of batiste, embroidered or edged with lace	15 per cent. ad val.
	Head handkerchiefs, plain, cwt.	3 00
	Head handkerchiefs, printed, do.	3 50
	Trimmings, galloons, &c., of cotton, pure or mixed with wool, cwt.	4 00
	Curtains of embroidered cotton tulle, pair.	4 00
	Curtains, other kinds, do.	2 00
	Stiff nets, cwt.	6 00
	Oiled cloth, do.	0 80
	Stockings, do.	2 00
	Gloves, do.	2 00
	Braces, plain, do.	0 30
	Braces, with leather, do.	0 50
	Braces, elastic, do.	2 50
	Lamp wicks, do.	1 00

* 100 leptas (centimes) make 1 drachma or franc = 19.3 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Greece	Cotton—Continued.	*Dr. lep.*
	Manufactures:	
	Ready-made clothing for ladies, including petticoats trimmed with blonde or lace, and brocaded or embroidered with gold	15 per cent. ad val.
	NOTE.—Other ready-made clothing pays duty according to the predominating material of which it is made, with an additional duty of one-fourth the rate.	
Italy (revised law)	Cotton:	**Lire cts.*
	Yarns:	
	Single, unbleached, not measuring over 20,000 meters to ½ kilog, 1⅛ pounds (avdps.) 100 kilos.	15 00
	20,000 to 30,000 meters	20 00
	30,000 and over	25 00
	Twist and double yarns, unbleached	28 85
	Bleached or dyed yarns	34 65
	Manufactures:	
	Pure or mixed:	
	Weighing less than 7 kilos per 100 m. square of 27 threads or less to the square millimeter ..... 100 kilos.	80 00
	27 threads or more to the square millimeter ..... 100 kilos.	100 00
	Weighing more than 7 but less than 13 kilos per 100 m. square of 27 threads or less to the square millimeter ... 100 kilos.	66 00
	27 threads or more to the square millimeter ..... 100 kilos.	75 00
	Weighing more than 13 kilos per 100 m. square of 27 threads or less to the square millimeter ..... 100 kilos.	57 00
	27 threads or more to the square millimeter ..... 100 kilos.	64 00
	All others:	
	Unbleached ..... 100 kilos.	65 00
	Bleached ..... do.	74 00
	Dyed or woven, in colors ..... do.	90 00
	Printed ..... do.	115 00
	Embroidered ..... do.	232 00
	Tapes and ribbons ..... do.	69 00
	Carpeting ..... 100 kilos.	23 10
	Lace, tulle, and tricol ..... kilo.	2 30
	Velvet:	
	Raw cotton ..... 100 kilos.	120 00
	Dyed cotton ..... do.	155 00
	White cotton ..... do.	140 00
	Hosiery (in goods according to kind)	
	Ready-made clothing (as per material of which same is composed).	
The Netherlands	Cotton:	
	Yarn, all kinds	Free.
	Manufactures, all kinds	5 per cent. ad val.
	Special permission given for free entry of unbleached cloth to be printed or dyed in the Netherlands.	
Portugal	Cotton:	*‡Reis.*
	Yarns:	
	Single, unbleached ..... kilo.	139
	Single, bleached ..... do.	206
	Single, dyed ..... do.	232
	Twisted	309
	Manufactures:	
	Open and transparent tissues:	
	Lace ..... kilo.	2,575
	Tulle, common ..... do.	566
	Marly and canvas for samplers ..... do.	154
	Barèges ..... do.	618
	Muslins and cambrics, unbleached and plain ..... kilo.	206
	Muslins and cambrics, bleached ..... do.	247
	Muslins and cambrics, other kinds ..... do.	721
	Plain ..... kilo.	1,133
	Embroidered ..... do.	1,545
	Close-woven tissue:	
	Plain:	
	Sail-cloth ..... kilo.	102
	Hollands ..... do.	154

* 100 Italian centimes make 1 lire = 19.3 cents United States money.
† 20 Dutch stivers make 1 florin = 40.2 cents United States money.
‡ 1,000 Portugal reis make one milreis = $1.08 United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Portugal	Cotton—Continued.	*Reis.*
	Manufactures:	
	Close-woven tissue:	
	Plain:	
	Cambrics, white ..... do..	286
	Cambrics, printed or dyed ..... do..	563
	Other kinds:	
	Unbleached ..... kilo.	129
	Bleached ..... do..	154
	Dyed or printed ..... do..	566
	Napped:	
	Flannels of one color ..... kilo.	566
	Flannels of more than one color ... do..	772
	Coverlids ..... do..	566
	Moleskins, dyed ..... do..	232
	Moleskins, printed ..... do..	438
	Velvety tissues:	
	Plush ..... kilo.	566
	Velveteen ..... do..	232
	Velvets ..... do..	463
	Damask ..... do..	412
	Twilled, serged, or satined:	
	Piqués ..... kilo..	824
	"Catarcos and tonquins" ..... do..	1,133
	Serges, raw, for printing ..... do..	206
	Counterpanes ..... do..	566
	Other kinds not specified, bleached or not ..... kilo.	438
	Other kinds not specified, dyed or printed ..... kilo.	566
	Tapes ..... do..	463
	Shawls and scarfs, plain, printed, or dyed. do..	721
	Shawls, other kinds	As tissues, according to kind.
	Carpetings ..... kilo.	206
	Wicks ..... do..	515
	Cotton tissues mixed with silk. *See* silk. (Cotton tissues mixed with other other materials, except silk, will be charged the duty on the materials in the mixture, subject to the highest duty.)	
	NOTE.—If mixed with real gold or silver.	25 per cent. additional.
	Knitted wares and tricotage:	
	Of Scotch thread ..... kilo.	1,339
	Of other kinds ..... do..	1,133
	Haberdashery:	
	Galloons ..... kilo.	463
	Other kinds ..... do..	1,133
	Ready-made clothing and articles not enumerated	As tissues of which made with an addition of 50 per cent.
	NOTE.—Unbleached cotton tissues are admitted free of duty, temporarily, to be printed or dyed in Portugal for re-exportation.	
Russia†		*Dolls. cts. (U. S.)*
	Cottons:	
	Raw ..... *per pood.	32
	Yarn:	
	Uncolored	2 60
	Colored	3 40
	Wicks (lamp)	2 60
	Wadding	88
	Mixed goods	3 60
	Manufactures:	
	Weavings, rough, bleached, and dyed (except in Adrianople red)	12 16 to 35 20
	Printed and dyed with Adrianople red	16 00 to 38 40
	Velvet plush and plush ribbons	14 40
	Knit trimmings and net ware, chenille, canvas with or without embroidery, except buttons, tulle, and laces	11 20
	E.—Tulle and laces:	
	Tulle of all kinds for furniture and upholstery.	12 80
	Same for other use	64 96
	Laces, all kinds	96 09

*1 pood is 36 pounds avoirdupois.
† 100 copecks make 1 ruble = 65.8 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
	Cottons—Continued.	*Dolls. cts.* (*U. S.*)
	F.—Turkish weavings:	
	Cotton weavings, pure	1 60
	Same, with silk	19 20
	Same, half silk with gold or silver trimmings	48 00
Servia*	Cotton manufactures (per 100 kilo):	
	Fustian (treble-milled cotton) and other similar materials, unbleached; book muslin for linings or facings. Fustian (treble-milled cotton) and other similar materials (Calmuc, &c.), ticking, sack-cloth, Schökl, that is to say material for bedding woven in colors or in plaids: bed-spreads, materials for pantaloons and coats; quiltings and similar Canton flannels; all these articles without distinction, bleached, dyed, or woven in colors or printed; table linen and handkerchiefs, woven in colors or printed. As per cent. of gross weights.	18 per cent. in box or barrels, 10 per cent. in baskets, 5 per cent. in bales and sacks.
Spain	Cotton:	† *Pes. cts.*
	Yarns:	
	Single or double, bleached or unbleached, or dyed:	
	Up to No. 35, inclusive, kilo.	1 25
	Up to No. 36 and above, do.	1 75
	Twisted of three or more threads, bleached or unbleached, or dyed	2 50
	Manufactures:	
	Close-woven tissues, plain, unbleached, bleached, or dyed, in pieces or handkerchiefs:	
	Measuring up to 25 threads, inclusive, in the warp and woof in the square of 6 millimeters, kilo.	3 00
	Of 26 threads and above, do.	2 70
	Close-woven tissues, printed, twilled, or figured in the loom:	
	Up to 25 threads, inclusive, kilo.	4 00
	Of 26 threads and above, do.	3 70
	Open-woven tissues, as muslins, batiste, lawns, organdines, and gauzes, all kinds, kilo.	3 00
	Quiltings and piqués, do.	4 50
	Plush, velvet and cords, and beaverteens, do.	3 50
	Net or tulle, do.	5 00
	Wares of crochet of all kinds, including crochet edging, kilo.	3 00
	Lace, other than crochet, do.	6 25
	Knitted wares, in pieces, shirts, or drawers, kilo	2 60
	Knitted wares, stockings, gloves, &c., kilo.	5 25
	Haberdashery, do.	4 50
	Ready-made clothing	As material of which addition of 50 per cent.
	Embroidered articles	Do.
	Mixed tissues:	
	1. Tissues of cotton mixed with silk, except velvets and plush, the woof or warp of which is entirely of cotton, will pay duty on ⅔ of their weight as cotton and ⅓ as silk.	
	2. Velvets and plush will pay duty on ⅔ of their weight as cotton, and ⅓ as silk.	
	3. Tissues of cotton mixed with linen, the warp or woof of which is wholly of cotton, will pay half duty as cotton tissues and half as linen	
	4. Tissues of cotton warp or woof, all cotton, and the other of two or more spinning materials, liable to highest duty.	
	5. Tulle of cotton base, embroidered with silk or other, will pay duty as cotton tulle. (When mixture is the base, duty as per predominating material.)	

*Conventional tariff with Great Britain, and which can be obtained for the United States. One piaster of Servia = 07.9 cents United States money.

†100 Spanish centimes make 1 peseta = 19.3 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Sweden	Cotton:	*Kr. ore.*
	Yarns:	
	Cotton, simple or double, in skeins or upon bobbins:	
	Uncolored ..... kilo.	.19
	Colored or printed, all kinds ..... do..	.33
	NOTE.—In case it appears doubtful if yarn entered as "double cotton yarn" should rather not be entered as cotton thread, the importer will be required to furnish expert testimony to the effect that the article really is what it is declared to be, before being allowed the benefit of the lower duty upon "double cotton yarn."	
	Threads and twines, all kinds ..... kilo.	.47
	Manufactures:	
	Cotton, covered with gold, silver, or other metal, with military haberdashery	
	Divi divi	Free.
	Bookbinders' cloth ..... kilo.	.50
	Velveteen and plush, also rugs and fustian .. do	.94
	Window-shades, of cotton, linen, or hemp, painted or printed	.94
	Gauze, linings, muslins, organdies, and batiste ..... kilo.	1.76
	Sail-duck ..... do.	.14
	Tulle ..... do.	2.90
	All other kinds of cotton textures:	
	If unbleached and undyed ..... do.	.58
	If bleached or dyed ..... do.	.94
	If printed or embossed ..... do.	1.18
	With smaller or greater admixture of linen, hemp, or jute:	
	Bed-tick ..... kilo.	.94
	Damask and diaper ..... do.	1.20
	Carpet stuffs ..... do.	.40
	Other kinds, to be classed with similar fabrics composed solely of cotton.	
	Manufactured goods, when exported by sea from a Swedish staple town, are entitled to drawbacks, viz:	
	Cotton yarn:	
	Colored (or printed) ..... kilo.	.19
	Textile fabrics, No. 26 English standard, or higher ..... kilo	.19
	Machine-sewed articles, shirt collars	.58
	Provided the following regulations are observed:	
	2. There must be attached to each declaration of export a sworn certificate of the manufacturer, provided with the signatures of two witnesses, to the effect that the merchandise is of Swedish manufacture and of foreign raw material for which full duty has been paid, and in the case of colored or printed yarn or textile fabrics, that they are manufactured of foreign-spun and duty-paid yarn, and in regard to machine-sewed cotton or linen articles, that such have been manufactured in Sweden from imported, duty-paid fabrics; and such certificates shall, when relating to cotton textiles, state that the yarn therein contained is equal in fineness to No. 26 English standard, or above it; and such certificates are to be entered in the register of the custom-house of the port wherefrom the exportation takes place.	
Switzerland	Cotton:	†*Frs. cts.*
	Yarn, single or double:	
	Unbleached or dyed ..... quintal.	20 0
	Bleached or dyed, and sewing thread .... do...	35 0
	Manufactures:	
	Pure or mixed unbleached, plain or twilled, ticking, and cotton tulle, unbleached and plain coverlids	2 00
	Dressed, bleached, dyed, or printed, also worked coverlids	8 00

*100 Swedish ore make 1 krone (crown) = 26.8 cents United States money.
†100 Swiss centimes make one franc = 19.3 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Switzerland	Cotton—Continued.	*Frs. cts.*
	Manufactures:	
	Piques, dimities, tissues woven with pattern damasks and brilliants	8 00
	Velvet, not dyed or printed	2 00
	Velvet, dyed or printed	8 00
	Lace and embroidery	15 00
	Ready-made clothing	15 00
	Hosiery and haberdashery	8 00
Turkey	Cotton:	
	Yarn:	†*Pias. asp.*
	Twist, gray or white, all ....cwt	1 30
	Twist, dark blue, sky blue, or red....do..	1 77
	Twist, Turkey red ....do..	2 40
	Sewing thread, white or gray ....do..	1 53
	Manufactures:	
	Bed ticking:	
	27 to 32 inches wide ....yard.	0 20
	35 to 32 inches wide ....do..	0 30
	Bobbinet, tulle, white, 25 to 40 in. wide.do..	0 25
	Bobbinet, tulle, colored ....do..	0 28
	Bobbinet, figured ....do..	0 60
	Buttons	7.20 per cent. ad val.
	Calicoes or domestics, gray, of every width and quality (gray shirtings and madapolams excepted) ....oke.	1 23
	Calicoes and long cloths, white, plain, of every width and quality (white shirtings and madapolams excepted) ....oke.	1 34
	Calicoes, 7-8ths printed, and printed cottons, 1 and 2 colors, fast and loose, 28 yards piece.	2 67
	Calicoes, 7-8ths, 3 and 6 colors, 28 yards ..do..	3 44
	Calicoes, 9-8ths, 3 and 5-4ths, 1 and 2 colors, 30 to 45 inches wide, 24 yards, dress and furniture patterns, all qualities, fast and loose colors ....piece.	4 22
	Calicoes, 9-8ths and 5-4ths, 3 and 6 colors .do..	6 20
	Cambrics, plain, white, 3-4ths and 6-4ths, 34 to 35 inches wide, 12 yards....piece	1 80
	Cambrics, 8-4ths, 58 to 62 inches wide, 24 yards....piece	3 48
	Cambrics, figured, stripes and spots, 38 to 44 inches wide, 12 yards....piece	2 16
	Cambrics, twilled gray, 6-4ths, 40 to 42 inches wide, 24 yards....piece	2 35
	Cambrics, white, 6-4ths and 7-4ths, 40 to 48 inches wide, 24 yards....piece	3 35
	Cambrics, dyed and various colors, 7-8ths, 9-8ths, and 6-4ths, 24 to 44 inches wide, 24 to to 28 yards....piece	3 74
	Cambrics, dyed, Turkey red, 7-8ths, 9-8ths, and 6-4ths, 24 to 44 inches wide ....yard	0 23
	Damask	7.20 per cent. ad val.
	Diapers and huckaback	7.20 per cent. ad val.
	Drills:	
	Cotton, gray, white, and dyed ....oke.	1 56
	Cotton and linen mixed, and fancy colored cotton	7.20 per cent. ad val.
	Ravenduck 25 to 27 inches wide, 36 to 40 yards....piece	7 88
	Fustians:	
	Sateens, white and dyed, 28 to 27 inches wide ....yard	0 14
	Cotton velvet, in various colors, 24 to 26 inches wide ....yard.	0 31
	Turkey red, 24 to 26 inches wide....do..	0 87
	Printed red, 24 to 26 inches wide....do..	0 43
	Velveteens dyed, 15 to 17 inches wide.do ..	0 28
	Handkerchiefs:	
	White cambric, with white or colored border, 29 to 32 inches square....dozen.	1 44
	Printed cotton, orange ground, with red and yellow, 20 to 25 inches square.dozen.	0 92
	Blue ground, 23 to 32 inches square...do..	1 29
	Turkey red, 22 to 29 inches square....do..	1 68
	Lappets:	
	6-4ths, 40 to 42 inches wide, 10 yards, and with one or two colors; also Victoria checks and sprigs ....piece.	1 44

*100 Swiss centimes make one franc = 19.3 cents United States money.
†100 Turkish aspers make one piastre = 04.3 cents United States money.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE—Continued.

Country.	Description.	Rate of duty.
Turkey	Cotton—Continued.	*Pias. asp*
	Manufactures:	
	Lappets:	
	Harness and leno checks and sprigs, 6-4ths, 40 to 42 in. wide, 10 yards piece	2 39
	Shawls, white and colored, 48 to 52 inches square ..... dozen.	3 03
	Shawls, white and colored, 63 to 64 inches square ..... dozen.	5 09
	Muslins:	
	Book, ordinary quality, 38 to 39 inches wide, 10 yards ..... piece.	0 76
	Book, good quality, 43 to 44 inches wide, 10 yards ..... piece.	1 92
	Jaconets (called mermer), 7-8ths, and 6-4ths, 36 to 44 inches wide, all qualities, 20 yards ..... piece.	2 15
	Mulls (called chapali), 4-4ths, 7-8ths, and 6-4ths, 30 to 42 ins. wide, 24 yards piece.	2 11
	Mulls, Nos. 5 and 6, 4-4ths, 7-8ths, and 6-4ths, 32 to 44 in. wide, 20 yards .piece.	3 36
	Mulls, No. 26 and upwards	7.20 per cent. ad val.
	Tanjibs (called surai), 4-4ths, 31 inches wide, 17 yards ..... piece.	1 20
	Muslins (called sevaspoor) 4-4ths, 7-8ths, and 6-4ths, 32 to 43 inches wide, 20 yards ..... piece.	1 82
	Muslins (called savaspoor) 7-8ths, 48 to 50 inches, 20 yards ..... piece.	2 28
	Printed muslins, all qualities, all widths, fast and loose colors, 24 to 25 yards .piece.	4 31
	Nankeens:	
	Plain, colored and striped, 24 to 25 inches wide ..... yard.	0 10
	India, buff, per piece of 7 yards, or 9 to 10 piks ..... piece.	2 16
	Quiltings, printed, 27 to 28 inches. ..yard.	0 64
	Shirtings and Madapolams:	
	Of all qualities and widths, gray ..... oke.	1 53
	Of all qualities and widths, white ....do..	1 92
	Dyed, 32 to 33 inches wide, 24 to 25 yards, piece	2 40
	Dyed, 36 inches wide, 38 to 40 yards, piece	4 20
	Stockings and half stockings	7.20 per cent. ad val.
	Zebras:	
	3½ yards, blue and white stripes, blue and orange stripes, orange all over and orange striped, damasked blue grounds, large and small pines, and ditto imitation	7.20 per cent. ad val.
	Fermaish	7.20 per cent. ad val.
Malta	Cotton yarns and manufactures	Free.

POLYNESIA.

Hawaii*	Cotton yarns and manufactures	Free.
	All cotton goods, when manufactured into clothing, the same being the growth, manufacture, or produce of the United States	Free.
Falkland Islands	Cotton yarns and manufactures	Free.

* Hawaiian money is of the same value as United States money.

VALUES OF FOREIGN MONEY IN UNITED STATES CURRENCY.

As estimated and declared by the Secretary of the Treasury, January 1, 1881, and other authorities.

Country.	Monetary unit.	Standard.	Value in U. S. money.	Standard coin.
Argentine Republic.	Peso-fuerte	Silver (about)	$1 00.	
Australian colonies.				(See Great Britain.)
Austria	Florin	Silver	40.7	
Belgium	Franc	Gold and silver	19.3	
Bolivia	Boliviano	Silver	82.3	5, 10, and 20 francs.
Brazil	Milreis of 1,000 reis.	Gold	54.6	Boliviano.
British Possessions in North America.	Dollar	Gold	1 00.	
Bogota	Peso	Silver	96.5	
Canada				(See Great Britain.)
Central America	Dollar	Silver	93.5	
Chili	Peso	Gold and silver	91.2	Condor, doubloon, and escudo.
China	Tael	Silver	1 38	
Cuba	Peso	Gold and silver	93.2	$\frac{1}{10}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{1}$, and 1 doubloon.
Denmark	Crown	Gold	26.8	10 and 20 crowns.
Ecuador	Peso	Silver	82.3	Peso.
Egypt	Piaster	Gold	04.9	5, 10, 25, 50, and 100 piasters.
France	Franc	Gold and silver	19.3	5, 10, and 20 francs.
Great Britain	Pound sterling	Gold	4 86.6$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ sovereign and sovereign.
Greece	Drachma	Gold and silver	19.3	5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 drachmas.
German Empire	Mark	Gold	23.8	5, 10, and 20 marks.
India	Rupee of 16 annas	Silver	39.	
Italy	Lira	Gold and silver	19.3	5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 lire.
Japan	Yen	Silver	88.8	1, 2, 5, 10, and 20 yen, gold, and silver yen.
Liberia	Dollar	Gold	1 00.	
Mexico	Dollar	Silver	89.4	Peso or dollar, 5, 10, 25, and 50 centavo.
Netherlands	Florin	Gold and silver	40.2	
Norway	Crown	Gold	26.8	10 and 20 crowns.
Peru	Sol	Silver	82.3	Sol.
Portugal	Milreis of 1,000 reis.	Gold	1 08.	2, 5, and 10 milreis.
Russia	Rouble of 100 copecks	Silver	65.8	$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and 1 rouble.
Sandwich Islands	Dollar	Gold	1 00.	
Spain	Peseta of 100 centimes.	Gold and silver	19.3	5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 pesetas.
Sweden	Crown	Gold	26.8	10 and 20 crowns.
Switzerland	Franc	Gold and silver	19.3	5, 10, and 20 francs.
Tripoli	Mahbub of 20 piasters.	Silver	74.3	
Turkey	Piaster	Gold	04.4	25, 50, 100, 250, and 500 piasters.
United States of Colombia.	Peso	Silver	82.3	Peso.
Uruguay	Patacon	Silver	94.9	
Venezuela	Bolivar	Gold and silver	19.3	5, 10, 20, 50, and 100 Bolivar.

TABLES OF WEIGHTS OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES, SHOWING COMPARISON WITH UNITED STATES WEIGHTS, AS QUOTED IN THE FOREGOING TARIFF TABLE.

The kilogramme is the unit of commercial weight and is =2¼ pounds avoirdupois.
The kilogramme is a denomination of the metric system; which is used in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland, in Mexico, and most of the South American countries; and compares as follows:

Weights.	Troy weight.				Avoirdupois weight.			
	Pounds.	Ounces.	Penny-weights.	Grains.	Pounds.	Ounces.	Drams.	Grains.
1 Milligramme				.0154				.0154
1 Centigramme				.1543				.1543
1 Decigramme				1.5432				1.5432
1 *Gramme*				15.4323				15.4323
1 Decagramme			6	19.3234			5	17.6047
1 Hectogramme		3	4	7.2343		3	0	11.9848
1 Kilogramme	2	8	3	.3457	2	3	4	10.4737
1 Myriagramme	26	9	10	3.4874	22		11	22.7061
1 Quintal	.267	11	1	10.874	220	7	6	8.3115
1 Millier or Tonneau	2679	2	14	12.74	2204	9	15	1.0837

The avoirdupois weight of Great Britain is as follows:

16 drams =1 ounce.
16 ounces =1 pound.
14 pounds = stone.
14 stone =1 quarter (28 pounds).
4 quarters =1 hundred-weight (112 pounds).
20 hundred-weight=1 ton (2,240 pounds).

Other foreign measures of frequent commercial use are, viz:
Arroba = 25.359 pounds Mexico, Venezuela, and Argentine Republic; 32.379 pounds Portugal and Brazil.
Batman = 17.002 pounds Syria.
Centner = (from 9.3379 pounds Sweden to 136.080 pounds Bohemia.
Kan (or Catty) = 1.3334 pounds China.
Karat = 3.09 grains Turkey, 1.99 grains Egypt.
Libra = 1.014 pounds Peru, Uruguay, and Canary Islands.
Litra = 11.272 ounces Servia and Roumania.
Mark = 8.543 ounces Hamburg to 9.876 ounces when used in Austria.
Metical (mitkal) = 47.73 grains Egypt to 73.60 Tripoli.
Oke = 2.883 pounds Turkey to 3.371 pounds Greece.
Pecul = 1.333 pounds Japan and Siam.
Pood = 36 pounds Russia.
Pfund = 1.234 pounds Bavaria.
Quint = 1.763 ounces Denmark.
Rotl = 1.203 Africa.
Skilpund = 9.337 Sweden and Norway.
Zolotnik = 65.83 grains Russia.

[The two following reports, from Jamaica and Samoa, should have appeared in their proper places in the body of this volume, but were overlooked.]

THE COTTON-GOODS TRADE OF JAMAICA.

REPORT BY CONSUL HOSKINSON OF KINGSTON.

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the Department circular of March 19, requesting such information as was at my disposition, and with regard to the trade of foreign countries in the various fabrics of cotton manufacture, and particularly with reference to the article of cotton yarns.

The value of all manufactured cotton fabrics imported into this island is about $1,200,000 annually, constituting about one-sixth of its total imports. The greater portion of this import consists of plain and printed calicoes, the bulk of which is supplied by Great Britain, the United States coming next in order. I have no means of arriving at the exact amounts supplied by each country, as the carrying trade is almost exclusively by British lines of steamers, and the customs returns are rather vague on the point, but, from my observation of the course of trade since I have been here, I am satisfied that the trade in cotton fabrics with the United States is steadily increasing. And this is true of all other manufactured products. When I first came here, four years ago, it was difficult to find, exposed for sale in the shops, articles of American manufacture, but now I observe the manufactures of cotton, iron and leather, as well as of miscellaneous household articles, in almost every shop. No cotton yarn is imported, there being no factories for the manufacture of the article.

I will endeavor to procure samples of the British goods imported as requested in question No. 7, but I may say, here, that the British and American fabrics follow each other closely in style and make, the advantage being with the American on account of its longer staple and freedom from "filling." On this account they are dearer, at the first cost, but their excellence in quality is steadily making a market for them.

GEO. E. HOSKINSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Kingston, May 19, 1880.

SAMOAN COTTON.

REPORT BY CONSUL DAWSON, OF APIA.

In reply to your circular letter of March 19, 1880, relative to cotton yarns, I have the honor to inform you that there are no imports of this kind coming from England to these islands, and no facilities here for the manufacture of the article.

The yield of cotton in these islands this year, however, will be about 2,200,000 pounds. About 600,000 pounds of this is sea-island, and is shipped, after ginning and baling, to Alsace-Lorraine for silk manufact-

ure, while the yield in Kidney will be about 1,600,000 pounds, shipped, after ginning and baling, principally to Saxony.

This cotton is produced on the plantations of the successors of the firm of J. C. Godeffroy & Son, who also import about 20,000 pounds of hand-worked sea-island cotton from Vine or Savage Island, and about 100,000 pounds of Kidney from Tonga or the Friendly Islands. This firm has a large ginning-house in Apia, and run twenty gins by steam-power. Outside of this firm about 100,000 pounds of cotton is grown annually by Mr. Ad. Volkmam and Mr. F. Comwall, making a total exportation of ginned cotton from these islands of about 2,500,000 pounds annually.

THOMAS M. DAWSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Apia, 1880.

EXPLANATORY.

The following correspondence explains the exhibition at the Atlanta Exposition of the samples of cotton manufactures and yarns transmitted to the Department of State by American consuls in response to the Department circular of March 19, 1880.

Senator Morgan to Secretary Blaine.

WASHINGTON, *May* 19, 1881.

SIR: The Exposition which will be inaugurated in October at Atlanta, Ga., promises to be the most important and useful industrial meeting that has ever taken place in the South, or, perhaps, in the whole country. It will have an especial reference to the growth and manufacture of textiles.

I have observed with much pleasure that the Department of State, through our representatives in foreign countries, has collected samples of cotton, wool, and cosmos, and of the fabrics manufactured from these materials, from almost all parts of the world, and has accumulated most important information touching their growth and manufacture, and in reference to the markets in which the different classes and styles of goods find the best prices and greatest demand.

I am so impressed with the advantages that must follow the exhibition of these collections at the Atlanta Exposition that I venture to ask that you will place them in my charge for that purpose, unless you prefer to send them in charge of an officer of the State Department, and I will see that they are properly cared for and returned to the Department of State.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

JOHN T. MORGAN.

Hon. JAMES G. BLAINE,
Secretary of State.

Secretary Blaine to Senator Morgan.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, June 22, 1881.

SIR: In reply to your communication of the 19th ultimo, wherein you request to have the various samples of cotton and cosmos manufactures transmitted to this Department by the consuls of the United States placed at your disposal for exhibition at the Cotton Exposition to be held in Atlanta, Ga., in October next, said samples to be returned at the close of the Exposition, I have the honor to inform you that it gives me much pleasure to comply with your request, believing that the exhibition of these samples, as proposed by you, will be a matter of great interest and profit to our cotton manufacturers and exporters.

In connection herewith I have also the honor to inform you that the consular reports transmitting the foregoing samples, on the cotton goods trade of the various countries and the share of the United States therein, are now being prepared for the printer, and will be published in good time for the Atlanta Exposition.

As these samples and reports represent in a large degree the various phases of the cotton goods trade of the world, I sincerely hope their exhibition will fulfill all your expectations.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

JAMES G. BLAINE.

The Hon. JOHN T. MORGAN,
United States Senator.

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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

23336

REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

NOVEMBER, 1881.

AMERICAN TRADE IN GUATEMALA, AND HOW TO ENLARGE THE SAME.

REPORT BY CONSUL TITUS.

The following statements will serve to give a partial answer to the often asked, and, to our manufacturers and merchants, very interesting question, "What can be done for the extension of our foreign trade?" The statements herein contained refer especially to Guatemala, but, *mutatis mutandis*, may be considered as generally applicable to the other Central American States as well.

In the first place, a strong prejudice against Americans and their goods is to be overcome. Nearly all the importers here are foreigners, mostly Germans; and of the professed American houses only one or two of any importance are conducted by native Americans; the rest, chiefly by naturalized Germans. The majority of the importing establishments are branches of European houses, or have European connections in some way. It may therefore be expected that these houses, instead of giving assistance toward the introduction of American goods, would do all in their power to prevent it. The methods made use of are too well known to justify enumeration here.

Unfortunately, it would seem that many of our manufacturers were desirous of furnishing ammunition for the batteries of their enemies.

As an example of one branch of trade in which there is ample room for improvement, take that of cotton goods. Of these Guatemala imported last year to the extent of nearly $1,000,000, this being the largest item of her imports.

The official reports give no information as to the countries from whence imports are derived, but I am credibly informed that $100,000 would be a very large estimate of the proportion purchased in the United States, and also that American manufacturers could easily sell these goods here to the amount of $1,000,000 per year if the attempt were properly made.

They make no effort to procure information as to the peculiar kinds of goods in demand in these countries, and when requested by the importers to furnish a style somewhat different from those they are accus-

tomed to manufacture, they refuse to do so, unless on receipt of an order which no merchant in these countries can afford to give.

They will not *put up* the goods which they do manufacture in a manner suited to the wants of this market. The great majority of the people of this country, as you know, are Indians, and, of course, the retailers must purchase to suit their patrons.

Most of the retail stores are very small; an 8-by-10-foot room would probably be about the average size; the dealers cannot keep a large stock on hand, and, as may readily be seen, what they desire is a large assortment in a small place.

Prints, for instance, to be suited to this market, should be of two classes, *narrow* and *wide*. The former should be 25 inches wide, and the piece should contain from 28 to 30 yards; the latter should be 29 inches in width, and the piece should contain from 25 to 27 yards. These should be packed in *bales* containing 50 pieces, all of different patterns.

The duty on this class of goods is 38 cents per pound, gross weight, which, with the freights, to be mentioned hereafter, sufficiently explains why the bale is preferable to the heavy box.

In England, the importer can buy any desired assortment of original pieces (manufacturer's length, 60–100 yards), have them cut into pieces of any desired length, and packed in bales, containing no two pieces of the same pattern, and a sample card made out for each assortment. In the United States he is told that the manufactory is not a retail shop, or, "*We don't put up packs for peddlers*"; and as our manufacturers put up their prints generally in heavy boxes, in pieces of, say 50 to 60 yards, of all kinds of widths, and only their own assortments, of, say, forty pieces of only ten different patterns in the box, and their goods are for all these reasons unsuited to this market, the purchaser goes where he can buy what he wants and have it put up to suit him.

The entire state of Guatemala has a population of between 1,200,000 and 1,400,000; in round terms, about the same as that of the city of New York, and when the character of the inhabitants is taken into consideration the consuming capacity of the republic will be readily believed to be much the smaller.

And yet the importer is expected to buy as though he had a market half as large as the United States to sustain him, and is abruptly snubbed when he ventures to ask that the goods be selected and put up in a manner better suited to his trade than the one to which the manufacturer is accustomed. This class of goods is actually cheaper in the United States than in England; that is, the same price will buy a better quality of prints there, and I know of no reasons, except those above mentioned, why the United States should not have the entire trade.

The muslins and unbleached or gray cloths of American manufacture are not cheap enough for this market. The English goods of these classes sold here are much inferior in quality to ours, and are filled with starch, &c.

With people who earn 25 cents per day, cheapness is the prime requisite, and where the duties, freights, &c., are so outrageously high that the very cheapest article is almost out of reach, superiority of quality is no inducement. Most of the muslins and gray cloths are sold *here* at $2.25, $2.50, $2.75, and $3, Guatemala currency, per piece of 24 yards, from 22 to 26 inches wide.

Some few pieces are sold at from $3.25 to $5 per piece. The duty on muslin is 28½ cents, and on gray cloths 19 cents per pound, gross weight.

Drills, gray and white, should be in pieces of 24 yards, 28 or 29 inches

wide, and packed in bales of 50 or 100 pieces. Duty, 19 cents per pound gross.

But there is another fault of our exporters which, more than all others, operates to prevent the introduction of American goods into these markets, and that is *bad packing.*

This is the cause of universal complaint from all of the merchants here who have ever imported anything from the United States, and I very much regret to say there is only too good reason for it. It seems to me sometimes that if the express intention were, by reason of wretched packing, to make it absolutely impossible for our trade to gain any footing whatever in these countries the means could not be better adapted to the end.

Goods intended to stand thousands of miles of transportation by sea, ten or a dozen loadings and unloadings, and leagues upon leauges of carriage over the roughest imaginable mountain roads, in ox-carts, or on the backs of pack-mules, are put up as though for a pleasant railway ride of a few miles. Whenever the subject of American imports is introduced the invariable assertion is, "The Americans do not know how to pack," until the repetition of it has become so excessively annoying that I dread to hear it mentioned. I cannot bring myself to believe that this is a true statement of the case, because I have an abiding faith in the intelligence and ability of the American people, and some of the packing I have seen would indicate almost a total absence of ideas in the parties putting up the goods. Still, I can say not a word in refutation of the accusation, for the fact is self-evident that they *do not* pack properly, and if the charge of ignorance be denied, the only other hypothesis would be one still more discreditable. One or two houses having connections in New York succeed in bringing goods from there by having them put up by their partners, according to orders, but they are exceptions to the general rule.

Here is an instance: a merchant asked me, not long ago, to accompany him to his warehouse to inspect an invoice of furniture which had just arrived from New York. I did so, and found that in the entire invoice, costing about $2,500 at the factory, *not a single piece* was uninjured; and the greater portion was only serviceable as kindling-wood.

These goods had been packed in large cases, the sides of which were composed of two or three strips of board, leaving spaces 6 or 8 inches wide between the pieces. In this manner were packed heavy mirrors, marble-top tables, &c., and as a necessary result every one of them arrived broken. If the packer expected any other result he must be afflicted with an ignorance of the situation, the density of which is only equaled by that of the person who sent a shipment of skates to be sold in this market. And the above-mentioned goods came, too, by sailing vessel, thus escaping the rough handling of the transshipment at Panama.

How can our merchants expect to sell goods here when they are put up in this disgraceful manner?

The shipment of goods referred to cost $2,500 at the factory; freights and charges to this city $3,600; and there still remains to be paid the duty of 95 per cent., which, if the custom-house authorities accept the valuation of $375 made by the persons appointed for that purpose (the collector wants the importer to pay duties on $1,000), will add $356 more, giving $6,456 as the cost of a lot of furniture which cannot be sold here in its present condition for more than $900. Is it any wonder that these merchants think they cannot afford to buy in the United States, and go to Europe, where, if the goods are of an inferior quality

to ours, they have some reasonable assurance that their purchases will arrive here in something like a salable condition?

The satisfaction which I take in reflecting that the manufacturer of the furniture above mentioned is not a native American, is very much lessened by the knowledge that he is only an example of, and not an exception to, the rule.

The prime requisites for proper packing for this market are, security against breakage and damage by water, and lightness.

Goods shipped in boxes should be securely packed in such a manner as to obviate the danger of breakage, in a box of some light and tough wood—pine is not suitable—lined with tin, which should be soldered after the packing is done, so as to be water and air tight. This allows of the use of somewhat lighter materials in the construction of the box. The latter should be nailed with round or wire nails, as being less liable to cause splitting. Goods in bales should be securely surrounded with oil-cloth, lined with paper to prevent its adhering to the contents, and covered with strong canvas, then put into a press and strapped with iron bands.

The advantage of lightness in the packings will be readily understood from the following rates of freight, &c., per ton:

From the United States to the port of San José, $20 to $30; lighterage and wharfage at San José, $12; railroad freight to Escuintla, $10; freight per ox-carts from Escuintla to Guatemala, $20; municipal tax, $20; duties assessed on the gross weight, and calculated at nearly 100 per cent., consequently the packings cost at the rate of at least $82 per ton, in addition to the 100 per cent. duty, assessed as though the boxes, &c., were of the same value as their contents.

Packages shipped by way of the Isthmus of Panama should be marked with only the name of the importer, number, &c., and not with the name of the contents, as some of the merchants claim that packages of certain articles, when so marked, are apt to arrive with from one to half a dozen articles missing.

The foregoing are the chief causes which operate to prevent the introduction of American goods into these markets. Our manufacturers and exporters have the remedy in their own hands, for the superiority of American goods is universally acknowledged, but the importers are unable to buy in the United States, for the reasons above stated. Let them manufacture and put up goods to meet the demand, and pack them properly, and they will soon be able to overcome the interested opposition of European merchants.

FRANK H. TITUS,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guatemala, C. A., September 20, 1881.

AMERICAN BREADSTUFFS IN THE UNITED STATES OF COLOMBIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH, OF CARTHAGENA.

The principal articles of food of the people of this country are, plantains, rice, maize, yucca, yams, fish, pork, poultry, and dried beef, called "tasajo"; plantains rank first. There is a material difference between this fruit and the banana, with which it is often confounded; it is much larger than the latter and coarser grained, and does not decay so quickly.

It is eaten raw, boiled, fried, dried, and roasted. A fried green plantain has a similar taste to our fried Irish potato. When fried ripe it makes a very palatable dish, and when roasted it bears a great resemblance in taste to a well-roasted apple.

The plantain if once properly introduced in the markets of the United States would soon become a popular and cheap article of food. Without it in this country the people could not very well live.

The next article of food in importance is maize (Indian corn), from which the natives prepare an almost indigestible mass, called "bollo," in this manner: The corn is placed in a wooden mortar, and pounded with a pestle until well mashed; then soaked in water to soften it, and then placed on a stone slab, rolled out, cut in chunks, tied up in corn-husks, and finally placed in a kettle of water and boiled about three-quarters of an hour. There are a dozen kinds of "bollo," such as plantain and cocoanut *bollo*, of which, however, corn is the chief ingredient.

Next in importance comes the "cazabe" bread. It is prepared from a vegetable called yucca (a starchy tuber resembling in taste somewhat our Irish potato), in the following manner: The yucca is pounded in a mortar, and water is added; it is then patted with the hands into a thin cake and baked brown. It is tasteless stuff, containing but little nutriment, the starch being extracted in the process.

It would be well for our people to adopt the manner of preparing rice for the table as is practiced in this country. It is really, in my opinion, the only dish the natives understand how to properly cook, and when prepared in the following manner is a highly palatable, nutritious, and wholesome dish:

The "meat" of several cocoanuts is grated, a sufficient quantity of water added to cover same, and the mass is then well worked with the hands and squeezed through a cloth bag. The residue in the bag is thrown away, and the expressed liquid looks like cow's milk, and contains all the oil and nutriment. This liquid is put into a pot and allowed to come to a boil before a little salt and the rice are added; a lid is now put on the pot and the rice is steamed until cooked. Prepared in such a way a dish of rice is made very tempting. The yams and yuccas are cooked in the same manner as potatoes.

The "tasajo" is cut into long strips, sun-dried and packed in bundles of five pounds each, and shipped to market, where it is sold either by the yard or pound.

An immense quantity of matequa (prepared hog lard) is used in the composition of nearly all the dishes of this country. It sells for about the same price as good American leaf lard. The latter article is rapidly superseding the matequa.

There is not a single stove in Carthagena. The vast majority of Colombians never saw one. The old Spanish brick furnace, introduced three hundred and fifty years ago, is still in use, and likely to remain so unless some of our enterprising stove and tin-ware manufacturers will take advantage of this fact. This entire country offers a good field for manufacturers in this line.

The prices of all classes of native food-products, since the advent of the locusts causing an almost entire destruction of the crops in the States of Bolivar and Magdalena, have advanced so greatly that American breadstuffs are cheap in comparison.

Now is the golden opportunity for our exporters to rapidly extend their trade in flour, rice, corn, lard, potatoes, and onions.

Heretofore the consumption of flour has been mainly confined to Colombian ports, but is now being shipped into the inland cities and towns.

Its importation into this port has never exceeded fifteen hundred barrels per month. It should come in whole, half, and quarter barrels.

Notwithstanding the removal of the impost duties, which amounted to $7.50 per barrel, the present price is $14 per barrel, in gold. Imagine the profit:

Cost in New York	$6 50
Freight by steamer to this port	80
Lighterage here	15
Cartage and stowage	10
Insurance, &c	10
Total cost delivered here	$7 65
Profit	6 35

In view of the present unfortunate condition of the country, it can be safe to estimate an import of flour into this port of 5,000 barrels per month. True, this would be comparatively a small business, but I am confident that if the Colombians once became accustomed to the use of flour, their indigestible "bollo" and dry, tasteless cazaba will be forever discarded.

American corn-meal has never been introduced. Dried pease and white beans would sell well; so would dried peaches and apples.

The duties on canned goods are too high to make a venture in same profitable. Potatoes and onions are selling at five to six cents per pound. Lard is quoted at twenty dollars, gold, per hundred pounds.

There is but little demand for butter, especially that put up in America, which I am ashamed to relate bears no comparison in quality, flavor, and freshness to that of the Swiss and French article. As I have said before, in previous reports, it will not do to send butter packed for a cold climate to warm ones.

EDMUND W. P. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Carthagena, Colombia, August 24, 1881.

BREADSTUFFS IN COLOMBIA.

LOCUSTS CAUSE HIGH PRICES OF FOOD—IMPORT DUTIES REMOVED AS MEANS OF RELIEF, AND PANAMA RAILROAD COMPANY REDUCES TARIFF.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH, OF CARTHAGENA, COLOMBIA.

In connection with my former report (No. 10) I beg to state that the destruction caused by the ravages of the locusts to the crops of this district, and in fact to the entire state of Bolivar, has been immense. The crops of corn, plantains, bananas, yams, and yucas have been entirely devoured by these insects.

The sufferings entailed upon the already impoverished people are great. Prices of food have enormously increased. Plantains, the "staff of life" in this country, are now sold at three dollars per hundred, while six months ago they were worth only $3 per 1,000. Rice sells for $6 per 100 pounds, and all other food products in proportion.

In view of the present calamity the President of the Union, by special decree, has remitted all import duties on flour, corn, corn meal, rice, lard, beef, potatoes, and onions. This decree to remain in force until the locusts have disappeared.

At the request of Señor Balmaseda, I forwarded an appeal from him to the president of the Panama Railroad Company, Trenor W. Park, soliciting a material reduction of tariff on all food supplies passing over said road *en route* from California destined for this State. You will see from the inclosed copy of correspondence on the subject how generously Mr. Park responded by making a reduction of 50 per cent. on the present freight charges.

The locusts are now attacking the cocoanut trees and devouring the buds. The nuts now sell in this market for $25 to $30 per 1,000. This time last year prices were from $16 to $20 per 1,000. In consequence the exportation of this fruit, which for the year ending December 31, 1880, was 1,000,000, will greatly fall off.

I would advise, therefore, that none of our fruit-vessels call at this port for cargoes until the locusts have disappeared.

In my judgment, the presence of and ravages of the locusts will prove a "blessing in disguise" for the reason that more attention will be compelled to the development of the forest resources of this country, which are truly wonderful in extent, variety, and commercial value, and will pay in extraction of same far better than the present indifferent cultivation of food supplies. As long as the native can with but little effort raise an abundance of plantains, yams, &c., more than sufficient for his subsistence, no incentive exists for him to go in the forests and procure their products. Now, however, the inevitable fact stares him in the face that he must either do so or starve.

EDMUND W. P. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Carthagena, Colombia, August 18, 1881.

CARTHAGENA, COLOMBIA,
June 30, 1881.

MY DEAR SIR: The people of this unhappy State are sorely afflicted by the presence of the locusts in such numbers on their lands, and the destructive ravages they have already committed. Large plantations of plantains and Indian corn are consumed in a day. The inhabitants of the Sinn district are in a state of semi-starvation. Supplies of food are now being sent to the interior of the State by the government for distribution among the sufferers. So grave and serious has the question become that the general government has remitted the enormous duties on flour, meal, lard, and the first necessaries of life that are imported into this country.

I trust you will listen favorably to the inclosed appeal made to you by Señor Don Francisco Javier Balmaseda, the commissioner of agriculture of the State of Bolívar, for a material reduction of freight tariff of your railroad, for all food supplies passing over your line from California destined for this State. Should you do so, I am assured you will forever be held in the most grateful recollection by the impoverished people of this country.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

EDMUND W. P. SMITH,
United States Consul.

TRENOR W. PARK, Esq.,
President of the Panama Railroad Company, New York.

PANAMA RAILROAD COMPANY,
New York, July 20, 1881.

MY DEAR SIR: I am just in receipt of your letter of the 30th ultimo, communicating the information as to the destructive ravages of the locusts in the State of Bolivar, and which incloses the communication of Señor Francisco Javier Balmaseda, commissioner of agriculture of said State, of date of June 25, requesting, in view of the prostrate condition of the people, that this company make a material reduction in the freight tariff of the Panama Railroad for all food supplies passing over the road from California and destined for the State of Bolivar.

By this mail we issue instructions to our superintendent on the isthmus, Mr. H. A. Woods, to carry over the railroad all such food supplies coming from California and destined for Bolivar at one-half the present tariff rates; that is, to grant a rebate or deduction from present rates of 50 per cent. on all such supplies until the present sad and impoverished condition of Bolivar is passed or overcome, and until further orders from this office.

Be kind enough to convey the foregoing to Señor Balmaseda, together with the sincere hope that soon the afflicted people of his State may find assured relief.

I am your very obedient servant,

T. W. PARK,
President.

EDMUND W. P. SMITH, Esq.,
United States Consul, Carthagena.

THE AMERICAN SAMPLE ROOM AT COBURG.

REPORT BY CONSUL WHARTON, OF SONNEBERG.

Having but recently entered on the duties of my office, I thought the most advantageous course in acquainting myself with the work of the consulate was to visit and examine the different factories and commercial houses that ship so largely to the United States the peculiar character of goods manufactured in this region. On witnessing the number and variety of these establishments and the quantity, variety, and excellent quality of the goods, chiefly dolls, toys, china and glassware, hosiery, *papier maché* work, and what comes under the designation "notions," I could not wonder at the increasing trade between this district and the United States, which has made the Sonneberg consulate one of the most important in the German Empire.

On visiting the house that ships most extensively through my consulate, I was introduced into a large sample room where were exhibited only goods of American manufacture. This was the establishment of Messrs. Oscar Strasburger & Co., in Coburg, who informed me that they had a similar exhibition of American goods in their house in Hamburg, the goods of our country sold there being intended for the Russian, Austrian, Italian, Swedish, and other foreign markets.

By locating their house in Hamburg, a free city, they were enabled to evade the German tariff, which operated against the importations brought to Coburg. The goods in this sample room in Coburg consisted of the following articles neatly arranged on tables and shelves. First—

Toys.—The majority of these were cast-iron toys, very popular with the German trade, such as banks, pistols, flat-irons, and wheels for toys of various descriptions, made in Germany (the manufacturers of these toys ordering the wheels through Messrs. Strasburger & Co). The other toys were made of wood and consisted of games, block alphabets, supplejacks, animals, houses, boats, tops, &c. Next came—

Wooden ware, consisting of tables, croquet sets, &c. Next in order were arranged innumerable articles of—

Stationery, such as imitation gold pens and pencils, lead pencils, rubber

erasers, paper-weights, inkstands, twine-holders, paper-files, paper-scissors, pen holders, pen-racks, mucilage, pencil-sharpeners, paper-fasteners, druggists' stationery, copy presses, slates, &c. Then came a very extensive assortment of—

Hardware, including the following: Knife-sharpeners, egg-beaters, fluting-machines, flat-irons, nutmeg graters, dusting-pans, tea-canisters, candlesticks, Christmas-tree holders, oil-stands, camp fixtures, buggy-wrenches, auger-bits, locks, garden tools, hammers, coffee-pot and dish stands, coat and hat racks, match-safes, hoes, apple-parers, door-knobs, glass-cutters, clothes-wringers, coal-tongs, carriage-couplers, razor-strops, wire brushes, chisels, &c., after which came an interesting display of—

Jewelry, consisting mainly of chains, bracelets, and lockets, breast-pins, ear-rings, and rings had been imported but did not suit the German taste.

In addition to what I have described there was a display of notions, such as napkin-rings, fire-lighters, bells, nickel tobacco-boxes, match-boxes, and money-boxes.

Clocks and plated ware were on exhibition, but are no longer imported, and there is no demand. A large lot of rubber overshoes had also failed to meet with sale.

The business of importing these goods was begun about three years ago, and there has been a steady increase in the trade, and it bids fair to become more prosperous. The great demand is for more novelties, which the inventive genius of our people will doubtless soon supply.

The Messrs. Strasburger & Co. are the only house that imports American goods direct into the district of my consulate. As to how trade, particularly of the description named, can be promoted and increased, I have a word to offer, suggested by the visit here described.

HOW TO INTRODUCE TRADE.

There is no denying the fact, in my judgment, that trade is to be introduced into these foreign countries on the same principles that govern its introduction among the people at home.

In the United States the merchants do two most effective things:

1. They *advertise.*

2. They send out agents, or drummers, who throng railroad and steamboat lines and go into remote interior and rural places to make their wares known, and the result is the establishment and success of their houses. I think the same course should be pursued across the seas, especially in Europe.

The fact that different languages are spoken here makes but little difference Competent agents can be easily secured who speak the languages of the Continent, but an intelligent man who speaks only English can get along well enough in all the principal cities, towns, and districts, for English is generally spoken to some extent by nearly all the business community.

But if the employment of an agent by each manufacturer be too expensive, I suggest a substitute, which is that our manufacturers unite in a sort of international exposition union, the object being the display of their wares in those countries where they would be likely to meet with a demand. One agent might be employed for each consular district, who might establish his sample room at the town where the consulate is located, and this be, to a certain extent, under the wing of that officer. He could then advertise in the newspapers of the district and

invite buyers to come and examine the goods of those manufacturers who had thus associated themselves together. There should, I think, be one of these rooms located, especially, at all centers of trade. The plan would certainly answer for the articles I have enumerated, and as to perishable articles special instructions could be given the agent in each case in regard to these. The only objection to the plan that I can think of is the expense of renting the room and employing the agent, but this could easily be borne by the "union." Besides, the adage is true, in this case as well as all others, that "risks make merchants."

I am encouraged to believe that American importations to this country would largely increase if some such vigorous measures were adopted as those suggested. The sample room in Coburg is an earnest of what might be done. To bring toys and fancy goods to this district is like "bringing coals to Newcastle," but still they are here. If they can be successfully brought here, how much more into the non-producing districts.

M. B. WHARTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sonneberg, September 6, 1881.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH GEESTEMUNDE-BREMERHAVEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL CANISIUS.

Export and import.—The total export from here, *i. e.*, of goods and merchandise, from the invoices of which a consular certificate was given in this office, amounted to $43,149.06 in the quarter just ended.

In the corresponding quarter of the preceding year it amounted to $100,116.59, a decrease of $56,967.53. Many invoices which ought to be sent here for certification, are sent to other consulates, for which reason the statement of goods exported from here looks insignificant.

The import of merchandise from the United States into this twin port is vast and constantly on the increase.

I have no statistical reports yet for the comparison of the present state of the import trade of this great port with the past. But I can report that our manufactured goods are considerably appreciated in the German markets. Even in Geestemunde-Bremerhaven hardly a hardware store can be found in which many kinds of American hardware cannot be seen, from splendid carpenter tools down to a tack-hammer. American wash-boards, wash-tubs, cloth-wringers, sewing-machines, rakes, spades, pitchforks, &c., are sold here and find a ready market. Also, canned meats, ox tongues, canned fruits of all kinds, imported from our country, are for sale in every provision store. The import of grain and corn assumes large proportions. Prince Bismark considers this a bad sign for the future prosperity of Germany, and, therefore, tries his best in the German Parliament to increase the existing protective tariff duties. For instance, flour, for which but 50 cents import duty was paid per barrel, has been recently increased to 75 cents. In answer to the opposition of the Liberals and Freetraders combating the chancellor's protective tariff notions and accusing him of reactionary and despotic sentiments, he pointed to the United States and France as being the two freest republics on earth, although they had the highest protective tariffs. If the

Prince can effect it, he will in the next German Parliament increase the present import duties, which are at present not very high.

Hamburg and Bremen, the two remaining Hanseatic Towns of Germany, into which every kind of merchandise can be imported free of duty, like into the ports Geestemunde-Bremerhaven, have to enter the custom-house union Zollverein. Hamburg already accepted Prince Bismark's conditions, and Bremen, of course, will have to follow.

False assertions about our canned meats.—I recently published the official report from the State Department relative to the disease of American hogs. I see now in the German papers that a certain Dr. Roloff, of Berlin, attempted to make the public believe that our corned beef as well as canned meats, found in nearly all the large European markets, is unhealthy, asserting that diseased cattle were slaughtered for the purpose, and the meat put up with healthy beef. This willful misrepresentation was enunciated in public lectures, and was circulated everywhere through the German press. If the State Department would authorize an investigation as to the truth of this assertion, the German public, I am certain, would rather believe the State Department's official report than Dr. Roloff's affirmations.

Petroleum.—It is already known to the State Department that at a short distance from here, in the province of Hannover, "oil has been struck" by some enterprising men in Oelheim (Oilhome). The jubilation over this discovery is extreme, and the parties interested declare that the time would soon arrive when the Fatherland would be no longer obliged to send millions of marks to America for this most important illuminating oil. It would seem, however, that the "Oilhome" men have not such brilliant prospects for supplanting our "Oiltown" men in Pennsylvania. To compete with them is, I believe, impossible, even if the Hannoverians should "strike" more oil. Such competition has been tried for the last thirteen years in Galicia and the Russian provinces, but without success.

Import of petroleum into the twin ports, Geestemunde-Bremerhaven.—The two ports, joining each other, Geestemunde-Bremerhaven, are the harbors in which the largest part of petroleum from the States arrives for consumption in North Germany. The stock on hand in the warehouses up to June 25 is, according to the best information I could obtain, as follows:

	Barrels
Bremerhaven	274,337
Geestemunde	185,164
Total	459,501
At the same time in 1880	737,280

The difference was caused by speculations based on Prince Bismark's action in levying an import duty on petroleum.

Crop prospects in Germany.—I endeavored during the last few months to learn from German newspapers the particulars about the crop prospects of this country. I believe that it may safely be predicted that Germany will need much more grain and corn this year from our country than last year. Early in spring the weather throughout Germany was very unpropitious for the development of wheat, barley, rye, and grass. During April and May a dry, cold easterly wind prevailed, so that all hope was abandoned of obtaining even an average crop, and it is now conceded by agriculturists that the results of the harvest will be far below the average. Many stock-raisers in the province of Oldenburg

will not have hay enough for their cattle feed during the winter. This state of things prevails in nearly all the sea provinces to the east and in Schleswig-Holstein. This unfortunate condition of prospective agricultural returns is certain for this year to increase the imports of grain and corn from the United States into Germany to a very large extent.

From the Danubian principalities, Hungary and South Russia, there are more favorable reports, but I doubt that these countries can supply the deficiency in Germany; and as the shipping facilities are ample between the American ports and Northwest Germany, the grain and corn buyers of this part of the country will prefer the American markets, even though they could purchase as cheaply in the far East as in the far West.

Live cattle.—No live stock is as yet imported from the United States into Germany, although good steers for slaughtering purposes bring as high a price here as in England. A butcher here, who furnished the Lloyd steamers with beef, has to resort to the Berlin stock-yards for his supplies, and good beef is in demand here by the public as well as by the North German Lloyd Company for their steamers. The Berlin cattle market is certainly not favorable to the purchasers for prices, and the steers brought here by rail from the German capital cannot be compared with the animals I have seen from New York in Bristol; although Oldenburg and Schleswig-Holstein, so celebrated in this country for fine beef, are not distant from this port, still the principal butcher of Bremerhaven has to go to Berlin to purchase the cattle wanted for the slaughtering-house. The steamers landing at Bremerhaven-Geestemund are not arranged for the transport of steers across the Atlantic to North Germany; with proper transportation facilities our cattle would, I am sure, find a ready and profitable market here.

Annexed follows the quarterly statement of the value of goods, registered in this consulate and exported to the United States:

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Geestemunde-Bremerhaven to the United States, during the quarter ending June 30, 1881.

Articles.	Value.
Beer	$345 94
Birds and animals	321 05
Brooms, heath	1,671 62
Hardware	122 84
Hats, straw	525 71
Liquors	1,798 00
Miscellaneous	341 99
Paint	1,181 71
Salt, manuring	17,128 00
Spiegeleisen	17,216 21
Vinegar	480 00
Wine	1,516 00
238,452 empty petroleum barrels, value not known.	
Total in United States gold	43,149 06
Same quarter of the preceding year	100,116 59
Decrease	56,967 53

THEODORE CANISIUS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Geestemunde-Bremerhaven, June 30, 1881.

AMERICAN PIANOS AND ORGANS IN ITALY.

REPORT BZ CONSUL RICE, OF LEGHORN.

Information has been requested by American manufacturers as to chances of success in the introduction of musical instruments into Italy, and particularly the parlor organ. Now the people of this country are not, or ever will be, partial to the organ, which they regard as an instrument tolerable only in churches; in daily life pianos are seen on all sides, harmoniums very rarely. A few rich people (Germans, English, or Americans) may buy an harmonium for a fancy, but there is no demand for them from the Italians.

The pianos, which are generally imported from Marseilles and Germany, flutes and violins made in North Italy, and Viennese brass instruments, are those in fashion at present.

In support of my views on the subject, I may instance that Mr. Gaetano Zannetti, a musical-instrument dealer here, has had some parlor organs consigned to him by American houses; public trials of them took place, and they were considered a success, but no buyers came forward.

Twenty-nine organs, manufactured by Messrs. Mason & Hamlin, of Boston, valued at from 200 to 8,000 francs, have been imported, and of these three only have been sold by private sale. Some of these instruments have been exhibited at the Milan Exhibition and elicited praise; their tone was considered a little too high, and had to be lowered. The agents for these organs are Messrs. Carlo Ducci & Co. Probably the high price will explain the fact of so few being sold, for the tone and finish of the instruments met with general approval.

Others, made by George Wood & Co., of Boston, ranging in price from 150 to 1,000 francs, have been imported; but the defect in tone already mentioned required to be rectified. Only a few of these have been sold.

What is really required here, and what would have a ready sale, are good, serviceable pianos, at prices ranging from $100 to $200 delivered here, and a few at $300 and over—upright and half grand instruments. All the dealers agree that such grades would meet with quick sales, and eventually run off the French and German importations.

Also, if the sellers would sell on the three-year system, on fair terms as to interest, a great sale would certainly result. The favorite piano now in use is the Boisellot, costing about 950 francs delivered. This is too high a price for the people. A piano, price about 600 to 800 francs, and payable in ten or a dozen installments, would succeed. Persons now hire a Boisellot at 15 to 20 francs per month, and pay for tuning them.

Singer's Sewing Machine Company are doing an enormous business, because they sell their machines and take weekly payments of 3 francs To render it possible for a small employé to buy a piano for say 50 francs a quarter, would induce an extensive business.

Messrs. Carlo Ducci & Co., at Florence and Rome; Messrs. Ricordi, Milan, Florence, and Rome, are the largest dealers in musical instruments in Italy, and exporters could address them or Gaetano Zannetti, of Leghorn.

The Italian director-general of customs publishes the following figures regarding the imports and exports from January 1 to 31 of August, 1881:

	Francs.
Total value of imports	910,191,268
Total value of exports	803,529,400

The receipts at the custom-house during the same period, were:

	Francs.
Imports	88,445,147
Exports	3,998,465
Manufacture and grist	2,977,134
Stamps	802,623
Maratime tax	2,167,333
Sundries	1,478,370
Grand total	99,869,070

A heavy increase over same period for 1880.

Harbor works.—The bids for the works described in my last report will be completed for next month.

WILLIAM T. RICE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leghorn, Italy, September 30, 1881.

TREATMENT OF AMERICAN PORK IN AMSTERDAM.

REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN.

I have the honor, herewith, to transmit a translated copy of the memorial and petition of J. B. Dievelaar & Co., of Amsterdam, to the common council of Amsterdam, relating to certain proceedings of the burgomaster and magistrates of this city, in connection with the discovery of trichina in American pork.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, September 6, 1881.

MEMORIAL OF MESSRS. DIEVELAAR & CO., TO THE COMMON COUNCIL OF THE CITY OF AMSTERDAM.

Willem Huender, sole member of the firm of J. B. Dievelaar & Co., of this city, with all due respect, begs to state:

That the burgomaster and magistrates have caused the following notice to be published in the *Amsterdamsche Courant* (Amsterdam Gazette), of the 7th August last, which notice has also been posted in various places in this city.

Trichinæ in American Pork.—The burgomaster and magistrates of Amsterdam bring to the notice of the public in general, that according to information received by them from the inspectors for the survey of articles of food, trichinæ have been discovered in flitches of American bacon kept in store by the firm of J. B. Dievelaar & Co., of 77 Warmoesstraat.

They consequently warn the public most urgently to observe all due caution before purchasing, offering for sale, or consuming any part of said flitches of bacon.

The burgomaster and magistrates aforesaid:

DE KONING, *Magistrate.*

DE NEUFVILLE, *Secretary.*

AMSTERDAM, *August* 6, 1881.

That the memorialist assumes that the burgomaster and magistrates had no right to address the said notice to the public; and if they had, that then the ordinance from which they derive such power requires urgently to be amended.

That the memorialist was acting in perfect good faith, and his acts by no means necessitated the issue of the said notice.

That on the 4th August, 1881, he, the said memorialist, caused 100 boxes of American bacon, each containing on an average 8 flitches, and purchased on a certificate of good quality from one of the principal and most responsible firms in America, to be warehoused in his store.

That when, on the 5th August, 1881, a surveyor demanded admittance to the memorialist's store in order to examine the said bacon, he was at once admitted; that the box the bacon was taken from was sealed up by said surveyor, and that on the following day, the 6th of August, the flitch in which trichinæ had been found was removed by the surveyors and debarred from being sold.

That there were therefore really no grounds for issuing the said notice, which, moreover, contained an erroneous statement, trichinæ having been found in only *one* flitch on the 6th August, and that the burgomaster and magistrates have thereby quite unnecessarily done great injury to the honor and good repute of the memorialist, and directly as well as indirectly caused him to sustain considerable loss; for that the entire lot of 100 boxes, as well as the other bacon on hand in the store of the memorialist, have lost considerably in value.

That, moreover, the memorialist may well be permitted to remark that, since 1871, he has imported very great quantities of American bacon into this country without its ever having appeared that the same was not of good quality; that he invariably purchases from first-class American firms, and always on certificates of good quality.

That in the case of the memorialist the burgomaster and magistrates have gone much too far, and that an honest merchant of irreproachable name and repute ought not to be exposed in such a way, or to be injured and hampered in his business in such a manner, by the burgomaster and magistrates.

That the memorialist begs at the same time to call the attention of your assembly to the mode of conducting the examination itself. That the said examination was begun on the 5th August, and that on the 30th August the board of surveyors had as yet examined only 16 boxes, or 128 flitches, in 5 of which trichinæ were found. That at this rate it will take more than *five* months to submit the memorialist's 100 boxes to an examination. That under such a system the trade in American bacon at this city is rendered impracticable. That the memorialist is prevented from carrying out the sales effected by him of the brand in question, without being exonerated from his obligation to deliver the same to the purchases, and without being enabled to profit by a rising market. That in the course of the said four months both home-cured and new American winter bacon will be brought to market, causing a reduction in the value of consignments of an earlier date. That in this case only 100 boxes are concerned, but that American bacon, of which the memorialist is one of the greatest importers, is brought to this port by thousands of boxes.

That in the interest of trade the present system of survey, therefore, requires to be amended, as it cannot be your intention to render the trade in American bacon, an article which supplies a want that is generally felt, an absolute impossibility.

That these are the reasons which induce the memorialist to apply to you, and to request that it may please your board to call upon the burgomaster and magistrates in the future—

1st. Only to warn the public when bacon infested with trichinæ is actually sold, or in the case of a refusal to withdraw such bacon from the trade, or in the alternative, to amend the ordinance relating thereto in so far as may be necessary.

2d. To supplement the ordinance for inspectors and surveyors of articles of food in such manner that the time for the survey of a certain quantity be limited, so that a merchant may not be unnecessarily subjected to loss and hampered in his business.

W. HUENDER,
Firm of J. B. Bierelaar & Co.

AMSTERDAM, *September* 2, 1881.

AMERICAN PORK IN AMSTERDAM.

TRANSLATIONS OF MEMORIALS TRANSMITTED BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN.

I have the honor to refer to my dispatch* of the 6th instant, and especially to the inclosure therewith transmitted, while forwarding herewith two more, viz:

1. Translated copies of memorials directed to the common council of

* Preceding report.

this city by parties here interested in the import and wholesale trade of American bacon and ham, and in the carrying business.

It does not appear to me to be required that I enlarge upon the subject at this time, as the inclosure herewith, if read and considered, together with the one above referred to, will fully explain it.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, September 24, 1881.

[Translation.]

To the common council of the city of Amsterdam:

The undersigned, all of whom are interested in the trade with America, beg, with due respect, to state that they have taken note with great interest of the memorial addressed to your board on the 2d September, 1881, by the firm of J. B. Dievelaar & Co.

That, in the interest of commerce, they deem it their duty to express their concurrence with the observations contained in the said memorial in regard to the waste of time in the inspection of bacon, for by such means the trade in bacon, which has developed into important dimensions, will be lost, not only for this port, but also for other commercial cities, where fewer obstacles are thrown in the way of merchants, and will expel Amsterdam traders from the provinces to which the greater part of the imported American bacon is conveyed. That therefore an alteration in the mode of inspection is urgently required, and all the more so as all bacon, whether home-cured or otherwise, will for the future, in the interest of health, have to be submitted to a close inspection.

That the memorialists will not take upon themselves to decide as to how far the burgomaster and magistrates were justified in publishing the notice appearing in the Amsterdam Gazette of the 7th and 8th August last, but that in connection therewith they do not wish to withhold their declaration to the effect that the firm of J. B. Dievelaar & Co. is known to be one of the leading houses in the import and trade in bacon, and is in general esteemed for the liberal and upright way in which its business is conducted.

Holding such views, they respectfully request your board to take the memorial of the firm of J. B. Dievelaar & Co. into serious consideration, and to decide thereon in a favorable manner.

(Signed by J. T. Jansen & Toon, P. Hegener & Toon, Bd. Essink, W. Cohen, A. J. Daniels, W. J. Gerritsz, F. C. Jaski, J. H. Grein, Plate & Boissewain, Broekman & Henny, Alberda & Plate, H. E. Serinige, H. Tenzler Herold, A. Von Gebauer, Van Breusekour & Brandts, F. A. Jacobs, K. H. Veldhüyzen, Jacob A. Abraham.)

AMSTERDAM, *September*, 1881.

[Translation.]

To the common council of Amsterdam:

The undersigned, with due respect, beg to state that they have taken note of a memorial addressed to your board on the 2d September last by W. Heunder for his firm of J. B. Dievelaar & Co., respecting the inspection of bacon.

Your memoralists are convinced that the grievances set forth in the foregoing document constitute grave difficulties in the way of the importation of bacon into this city.

That they consider it desirable that the said difficulties be removed and the existing regulations amended, the more so, as such imports will otherwise be conveyed to competing ports, and this to the detriment and loss of the trade and navigation of this city.

That they therefore join in the request of Mr. Huender, whose firm is known to be of good repute and standing, and trust that your board will remove the existing difficulties by instituting good regulations, whereby injurious merchandise may be intercepted without otherwise throwing impediments in the way of trade.

(Signed by the board of directors of the Royal Netherlands Steam Navigation Company, N. J. den Tex, W. Ramann, Schener Brothers, agents for the Hull steamers; p. p. Van Es & Van Ommeren, A. J. Boode, D. & P. Kievits, Urbel & Holtzapffel, F. van Zwieten, Gemmening & Penning, agents for the Hull, Leith, Glasgow, Bristol, and other lines of steamers; De Vries & Co., Olaardt & Breuinier.)

AMSTERDAM, *September*, 1881.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH BOMBAY

REPORT BY CONSUL FARNHAM.

I have the honor to forward list of direct importations from, and the exports to, the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1881.

I also give a list of exports from Bombay to Europe and the Continent.

As linseed cannot be exported from here to the United States with chance of profit, there is not a large trade with Bombay. Wool, too, does not often show any margin of profit if shipped to the United States; consequently, although very large shipments of linseed go forward to Europe and the Continent, as well as large shipment of wool, not a pound of linseed and very little wool goes to America. We are having a good monsoon, and the crops are thriving throughout the producing districts. This, in any event, will help American tonnage coming here, and American vessels are at present getting £2 per ton. This item is of importance to the American shipping interest, and should not be lost sight of by merchants and ship-owners at home.*

BENJAMIN F. FARNHAM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bombay, August 22, 1881.

Imports from the United States to Bombay, from July 1, 1880, *to June* 30, 1881, *in American vessels.*

Ship Sacramento:		
Kerosene oil	cases..	42,200
Sarsaparilla	do...	230
Tobacco	do...	25
Ship Charter Oak:		
Kerosene oil	cases..	31,023
Rosin	barrels..	400
Turpentine	cases..	500
Sarsaparilla	do...	300
Ship Prima Donna:		
Kerosene oil	cases..	29,386
Turpentine	do...	1,000
Rosin	barrels..	500
Soap	boxes..	77
Ship Joseph A. Ropes:		
Kerosene oil	cases..	20,000
Pain-killer	do...	100
Domestics	boxes..	29
Printed materials	cases..	13

Export from Bombay to United States, via canal, from July 1, 1880, *to June* 30, 1881.

Mustard seeds	bags..	3,451
Wool	bales...	515
Goat skins	do....	472
Sheep skins	do....	138
Jute baggings	do....	853
Hemp baggings	do....	81
Rags	do....	844
Coir yarns	do....	739
Dates	cases...	620

*This item was given to the Associated Press on receipt of the dispatch at the Department.

Chillies, or pepper long	bales...	856
Cloves	bags...	225
Carpets	bales...	55
Cardamons	cases...	83
Indian tea	do....	33
Indian condiments	do....	22
Deer horns	bundles...	41
Fish maws	cases...	5
Rose oil	do....	4
Gum	do....	3
Tortoise shell	do....	3
Brass ware	do....	3
Furniture	do....	4
Shawls, cashmere cloth and embroideries, &c	do....	10
Sundries	packages...	100

Export from Bombay to San Francisco, during the year July 1, 1880, to June 30, 1881: 200 tons old iron rails.

Number of bales of cotton exported via Suez Canal and cape during the year ending June 30, 1881.

Whither.	By steamers, 1881.	By sailing ships, 1881.	Total, 1881.	Total, 1880.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
To London	52, 580	52, 769	273, 068	363, 723
To Liverpool	167, 719			
To Havre	84, 270	53, 708	137, 978	75, 999
To Marseilles	26, 070	.....	26, 070	31, 450
To Genoa	63, 092	.....	63, 092	68, 288
To Naples	18, 000	.....	18, 000	25, 050
To Venice	79, 603	.....	79, 603	74, 051
To Trieste	144, 288	.....	144, 288	145, 485
To Odessa	3, 950	.....	3, 950	12, 770
To Bremerhaven	.....	51, 547	51, 547	24, 322
To Amsterdam	4, 000	4, 473	8, 473	7, 252
To Barcelona	9, 350	.....	9, 350	38, 378
To Antwerp	15, 222	.....	15, 222	.....
To other continental ports	6, 456	100	6, 556	8, 550
To Falmouth for orders	.....	1, 800	1, 800	.....
Total	674, 600	164, 397	838, 997	875, 318

Statement of shipment of wheat and linseed to Europe, from July 1, 1880, to June 30, 1881.

Destination.	Linseed.			Wheat.		
	July 1 to December 31, 1880.	January 1 to June 30, 1881.	Total.	July 1 to December 31, 1880.	January 1 to June 30, 1881.	Total.
Great Britain:	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*
London	10, 919	14, 486	.....	180, 331	550, 090	.....
Liverpool	39, 832	54, 305	.....	382, 519	732, 588	.....
Hull	72, 911	84, 446	.....	.....	135, 231	.....
	123, 662	153, 237	276, 899	562, 850	1, 417, 909	1, 980, 759
France:						
Havre	35, 960	155, 885	.....	44, 299	244, 537	.....
Dunkirk	192, 389	665, 024	.....	.....	211, 011	.....
Calais	27, 087	41, 322	.....	.....	.....	.....
St. Nazaire	.....	.....	.....	.....	48, 008	.....
Dieppe	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Bordeaux	.....	.....	.....	.....	88, 872	.....
Marseilles	31, 562	12, 432	.....	394, 767	763, 202	.....
	286, 998	874, 663	1, 161, 661	439, 066	1, 355, 630	1, 794, 696
Belgium:						
Antwerp	3, 750	167, 977	171, 727	54, 513	698, 740	753, 253

Statement of shipment of wheat and linseed, &c.—Continued.

Destination.	Linseed.			Wheat.		
	July 1 to December 31, 1880.	January 1 to June 31, 1881.	Total.	July 1 to December 31, 1880.	January 1 to June 30, 1880.	Total.
Holland:	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*	*Cwts.*
Amsterdam	71,606	115,395	.....	.....	7,000	.....
Rotterdam	56,124	100,019	.....	.....	.....	.....
	127,730	215,414	343,144	.....	7,000	7,000
Germany:						
Bremerhaven	.....	3,250	3,250	.....	.....	.....
Italy:						
Naples	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Genoa	525	40,062	.....	60,541	80,725	.....
Leghorn	.....	2,812	.....	.....	11,000	.....
Venice	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,000	.....
	525	42,874	43,399	60,541	98,725	159,266
Austria:						
Trieste	.....	.....	.....	1,600	8,803	10,403
Channel for orders	.....	20,600	20,600	.....	.....	.....
Port Said and Malta for orders	.....	.....	.....	.....	43,736	43,736
Totals for year ending June 30, 1881	.....	.....	2,020,680	.....	.....	4,749,113
Totals for year ending June 30, 1880	.....	.....	1,133,803	.....	.....	922,584
Increase	.....	.....	886,877	.....	.....	3,826,529

THE CARRYING TRADE FROM GERMANY TO THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL CANISIUS, OF GEESTEMUNDE.

The emigration from Germany via this port amounted, from January 1 to June 30, inclusive, to 73,141 persons; 42,667 were landed in New York, 29,022 in Baltimore, and 1,352 in New Orleans; besides, 190 persons went to Brazil. All these emigrants were taken across in the North German Lloyd Company's steamers.

During the other half of the year the emigration will not be as large as in the preceding six months, but certainly large enough to increase the number to 100,000 of those who started from *this port alone* for our country. This immense emigration has created considerable uneasiness in Germany, and the great facilities offered to emigrants to get across the Atlantic have their effect upon the constant increase of the German exodus. The Lloyd Company here possesses at least fifty large steamers for ocean travel, and has recently built a steamer near Glasgow of 7,500 tons, 440 feet long and 45 feet wide. It is the second largest steamer now afloat, and one of the finest and most practical in existence. One hundred and twenty passengers, first and second class, and 1,000 third class find ample accommodation in this splendid vessel. It commenced its first trip to New York June 18th, and makes an average of 16 miles an hour, in favorable weather; it is so far, the quickest mail steamer running between the United States and Germany.

This vast progress in ocean steam travel is very gratifying, but would be much more so if the United States participated therein.

Not a single American steamship comes to this port, because our laws prohibit our citizens from having ships built wherever they find it cheapest. That no nation can compete with the English in steamship building, is conceded everywhere, I believe, and the North German Lloyd and Hamburg companies for this reason have no ocean steamers built in Germany, but have all their constructions carried on on the Clyde. Why should our people not possess the same privilege?

In building sailing vessels we can compete with *any country*, but we fall lamentably short in the construction of ocean steamers, as now required by the traveling public.

If Germans want splendid and cheap sailing vessels they invariably buy in the United States, because their price is very reasonable, and their construction and inner arrangement much better than those built in Europe. As we have no reason to fear foreign competition in this branch of naval architecture, no reason can exist, in my opinion, to uphold the old ship-marine prohibitive law. If our ship-builders of sailing vessels still need protection, Congress ought to amend the law so far as ocean steamers are concerned. If this be not effected we necessarily must lose still further the shipping traffic, which is already concentrated in the hands of the English and German shippers, because they have increased to a vast extent their steamship navigation.

Arrivals of ships at Geestemunde-Bremerhaven, and small ports on the river Weser, from January 1 to June 30, 1881.

	1880.		1881.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Bremerhaven	680	438,029	610	423,080
Vegesack	32	1,469	39	2,096
Bremen (small crafts)	557	28,556	434	22,136
Total	1,269	468,024	1,083	447,312
Geestemunde	133	102,725	131	82,344
Brake	60	12,182	52	11,966
Elsfleth	1	297		
Other Weser places	15	8,527	11	8,236
Total	1,478	591,755	1,277	549,858
Of the above ships were steamers	328	300,368	355	388,335

From the above it may be seen that the ports (twin ports) of Geestemunde and Bremerhaven surpass all ship-building places on the river Weser, including the city of Bremen (which can only be reached by small crafts) by 480,990 tons.

The total tonnage of the vessels which arrived during the above stated time at all small ports on the river Weser, including Bremen, amounted only to 24,434 tons. This proves the great importance of Geestemunde and Bremerhaven as sea-ports.

Arrivals of American sailing ships.

Since January 1 to June 30 eleven American sailing vessels arrived and departed from this port. There cargoes were:

	Value.
1. General cargo	$80,737 00
2. Cotton, 19,356 bales	1,829,046 00
3. Tobacco, 83 hogsheads	7,470 00
4. Petroleum, 35,964 barrels	215,600 00
Total	2,132,853 00

Each of the eleven vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 12,650 tons, had a back cargo from here to the States, with one exception, which went to Nova Scotia in ballast. This is an advantage which nearly all American ships can obtain here, but unfortunately this is not the case in England, unless they are chartered for Cardiff or Newport coal to the East Indies or the West Indies. The principal cargoes consisted of empty petroleum barrels, manuring salt, and spiegeleisen.

THEODORE CANISIUS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Geestemunde-Bremerhaven, June 30, 1881.

AMERICAN TRADE AND NAVIGATION AT MAZATLAN, MEXICO.

REPORT BY CONSUL KELTON.

The table herewith submitted will show the commerce of this port with the United States during the past year, in which there has been a considerable increase on the preceding year.

The principal articles of importation from the United States are machinery, hardware and glassware, coal oil, cotton goods, mining powder, quicksilver, and in a much smaller proportion some groceries, drugs, perfumery, and stationery. The very high rate of duty on canned goods, amounting almost to a prohibitory duty (72 cents per kilogram, tin or glass included), occasions a very slight demand for such articles.

Until American manufacturers offer to the Mexican importers the same advantages they obtain in Europe in regard to long credits as well as to uniform good quality, exact weight, and careful putting up, the demand for American goods will naturally be restricted to such articles as they cannot find in the European markets.

Exports.—The successful working of several new mines has increased the production of silver, and consequently the exports show an advance; but a recent law taxing the exportation of ores will probably cause a falling off in future by preventing any but very rich ores from being exported; it may even compel many mines to stop work altogether from want of capital to put up reduction works for such ores as are not rich enough to bear the tax.

The principal exports are silver coin and bullion, hides, ores, fruits, and dried shrimps.

Agriculture.—Exceptionally abundant rains have, to a certain extent, compromised the prospects of the crops for this year, and the importation of considerable quantities of corn and cotton may become necessary.

Finances.—The civil and military lists are now being paid with a punctuality heretofore unknown, and the heavy premiums formerly allowed by the government on advances are no longer given. After the 1st of November a duty will be levied on all articles heretofore free, and a tax placed on all sales of merchandise.

It is questionable, however, if the government, even with its increased revenues, will be able to promptly meet its greatly increasing expenditures.

Mazatlan.—The well-known insecurity of this harbor, and the frequent loss of vessels while at anchor, demand that the federal government appropriate funds for the construction of a breakwater, the cost of which

is estimated at $600,000. Three foreign vessels have been wrecked in this port during the past year.

Mazatlan, although having the benefit of geographical position and a large established trade, has not so far attracted the attention of railroad concessionists, and there is no prospect at present of any of the new lines in project adopting this port as a terminus.

Americans.—No increase has taken place in the number of the residents of this port.

EDWARD G. KELTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Mazatlan, Mexico, September 22, 1881.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Mazatlan, Mexico, and the United States for the year ending June 30, 1881.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

	Value.
Agricultural implements	$11,890
Beer and wines	23,760
Candles	24,726
Canned goods	9,692
Cotton manufactures	119,456
Coal oil	48,670
Fire-arms	21,560
Groceries	87,400
Hardware	53,000
Lumber	16,000
Machinery	45,980
Powder	70,000
Sewing-machines	5,680
Quicksilver	90,000
Miscellaneous	49,713
	677,527

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

Bullion and specie	$3,663,241
Brazil wood	61,859
Hides	36,571
Ores	208,040
Miscellaneous	8,572
Total	3,978,283

THE LEGITIMATE AND CONTRABAND TRADE BETWEEN GUERRERO AND THE UNITED STATES.

BY ACTING CONSUL WINSLOW.

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consulate at Guerrero, Mexico, to the United States during the quarter ending September 30, 1881.

Sheep, goats, and lambs	$816 22
Dry beef hides and goat skins	855 65
Cows, steers, and calves	296 80
Total	1,968 67

The small amount of exports shown in this return needs an explanation, as it does not show the total amount of the exports. During the

month of July and the greater part of August the consulate was closed, and would have been closed to this day if I had not taken charge of the office, as there is no other American in the place except myself. The reason of the closure of the office was the sickness and death of Dr. Cook, late vice-consul.

The greater amount of exportations from this place are to Corpus Christi, and consist of wool, hides, and living animals, and the busy season commences in the months of October and November, after the shearing takes place. The falling off in the exportation of living animals and hides is more than in previous years, owing to there being very few cattle here at present, they having been sold to drovers who come in from Texas, who buy the fat beeves, and to rancheros, who buy the cows and yearlings for raising stock. Cattle that could be bought a few years ago at seven and eight dollars a head are now worth twenty dollars, and are scarce at that price. When it is remembered that the chief food of the people is meat, there being no vegetables, it will be seen that it makes a considerable difference in the price of living.

It is strange, however, that in a city like this, of 10,000 inhabitants, there are no poor people, and it is difficult to obtain a servant at any price.

Many of the Mexicans have transferred their flocks of sheep and goats to Texas, owing, I suppose, to the better pasturage there and to the United States Government affording more security.

There is, however, another reason more powerful still for the small amount of exportations noted, and that is the *contraband* trade that is carried on. I am warranted in asserting that fully two-thirds of the goods exported to the United States pay no duty. The duty on live animals being 20 per cent., if paid by exporter would almost compel the owner to pass them as contraband, and there is little or no hinderance for him to do so if he wishes. From Laredo to Mier, a distance of 110 miles, there is only one United States custom-house, situated at Carrizo, Tex., 6 miles distant, on the other side of the river. To guard this immense stretch of territory, which extends along the banks of the Rio Grande and is covered by dense forests of mesquite and nopal, and only traversed by narrow "*varedas*" known only to the rancheros and contrabandists, there are some twelve men, as mounted guards, who have but little acquaintance with the country. All along the river there are numerous ranches where there are canoes and skiffs, and in front of many of them the river is so shallow that it can be forded on horseback, so that goods can easily be passed, even in the day-time, without the knowledge of the guards on the Texan side, and once over they can easily be concealed in the dense jungles, or even in the houses of the rancheros. The contrabandists have means of knowing when the guards are about by certain signals made by their accomplices on the other side by lighting bonfires, or by messengers who either swim the river or pass in canoes, so that it is very easy to pass goods without paying duties, and thus the United States Government is almost entirely defrauded of its just dues, and the collection of duties is almost a farce, as only the most *honorable* merchants ever think of paying duties.

There are numbers of men here in Guerrero whose sole business it is to pass contraband goods. As is their business such is their character. Brave, reckless of life, inured to hardships, excellent horsemen, unerring marksmen, devoid of all moral principles, acquainted with the narrow fords in the river and the winding trails through the chaparral; and from a number of years' experience in the business they are enabled under nearly every circumstance to avoid the vigilance of the United

States custom-house guard, and, if discovered, will defend themselves with their rifles.

Under this deplorable state of circumstances it is difficult to find a remedy. I would recommend, however, the establishment of another custom-house at the town of San Ignacio, in Texas, on the border of the Rio Bravo, midway between Guerrero and Laredo, and an increase in the number of custom-house guards, and these to be selected from the rancheros who live along the river and are acquainted with the people and the country, and not from young men who have just come out from the effeminate life of our large cities, and know better how to smoke a good cigar than to manage a rifle, and have nothing else to recommend them except the influence of some rich friend. One of these guards could be permanently stationed, day and night, in front of each ford on the river.

Small wooden houses could be erected with but little cost for their residence, and this would be much better for their health and more conducive to the interests of the government than for them to be lounging about the custom-house in Carrizo.

The Mexicans manage this business much better than we do, as besides a small, well-equipped body of guards they have a body of cavalry stationed at each town on the frontier, whose business it is to scour the country each day in search of contrabands, andwho have orders to shoot down the traders in contraband if they make the slightest resistance.

In my next return I will endeavor to send some reliable statistics of the amount of contraband passed into the United States.

CHARLES WINSLOW.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guerrero, Mexico, October 2, 1881.

AMERICAN CANNED GOODS IN NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

The increase in the trade of American canned goods in New Zealand has been extraordinary during the last few years. At one time all the canned goods consumed here were supplied by Great Britain. In the year 1870 the total value of the imports of salmon from the United States was only $463 against $30,090 from Great Britain.

The contrast in the imports of preserved fruits during that year was still greater. Out of 2,963 packages, of the value of $40,755, the United States only supplied the small number of 50 packages, valued at $200, the remainder having been brought from Great Britain and her possessions. A few years later, however, New Zealand began to import large quantities of canned fruits from the United States.

There was at the same time a notable increase in the trade in American canned vegetables, while the American salmon soon drove all other from the market. The English exporters, however, continue to send various kinds of preserved fish here such as sardines, herring, &c., but the United States now enjoys a complete monopoly of the salmon trade of New Zealand. The American salmon is imported principally in one-pound tins. The duty charged on it is 2 cents per pound.

The wholesale price of good Columbia River salmon in Auckland varies from $1.75 to $2.10 per dozen one-pound tins, duty paid. They are packed in cases, each case containing about four dozen tins.

The following are some of the brands most generally in use: Astoria Packing Company, Astoria Fishing Company, William Hume, George Hume, J. A. Devlin & Co., J. O. Hauthorn & Co., Booth & Co., Baddut Company, Fisherman Packing Company, J. W. & J. Cook, Cutting Packing Company, Kinney & Co., Hopgood & Co., R. D. Hume, Joseph Hume & Co.

It sometimes happens that Columbia River salmon turns out badly. Not unfrequently tainted fish are put up and sometimes the packers fail to completely exhaust the air before the cans are hermetically sealed. If the air is not exhausted the can will become blown and of course the fish spoiled. The importers of Columbia River salmon tell me that they cannot give preference to any particular brand. If a shipment of a favorite brand should turn out bad the consumer is afraid to trust the brand again, and it is almost certain to be driven from the market. Sometimes the American packers label fish taken from Rogue, Alaska, and Sacramento Rivers, as Columbia River salmon. These goods are shipped here and sold at reduced rates, but as they are of indifferent quality they are calculated to injure the trade in the genuine Columbia River salmon.

The following is a table showing the quantity and value of salmon imported from the United States into New Zealand for each year since 1870:

Year.	Quantity.	Value.
	Packages.	
1870	50	$200 00
1871	357	4,720 00
1872	241	5,525 00
1873	1,382	11,795 00
1874	7,316	48,880 00
1875	3,621	40,925 00
1876	2,401	32,120 00
1877	8,283	71,720 00
1878	8,370	77,515 00
1879	6,280	69,860 00
1880	6,390	71,800 00

SALMON OVA IN NEW ZEALAND.

The satisfactory results obtained from a small consignment of salmon ova received from California at Napier in November, 1875, induced the Auckland Acclimatization Society to devote no inconsiderable part of its revenue to the cultivation of American salmon in New Zealand.

Communication was opened with Professor Baird, of the United States Fish Commission, who agreed to supply the ova free of cost, and exhibited the utmost interest and sympathy in the object.

Mr. Firth, of New Zealand, superintended the preparations made to receive the consignment, and, at considerable personal expense, made special journeys to deposit the ova at the Oratea and Rapurapu stations. He also bore the whole cost of the shipment of 100,000 ova from California. Professor Baird, on receiving the order, sent double the number asked for.

In all, three consignments have been imported. In 1875, 20,000 ova were introduced; in 1876, about 75,000; in 1877, about 100,000. From the first of these three lots only a few fish (comparatively speaking) were hatched; so that the success of the undertaking will principally depend on the importations of 1876 and 1877, placed in about equal proportions in the Waikato, Thames, and Northern Wairoa Rivers.

There can be no doubt that on each of these streams large numbers of the ova were successfully hatched, and the young fry were observed making their way down to the sea. Beyond this we have, up to the present time, received no reliable information respecting the fish. It is true that statements have been circulated respecting the capture of young salmon by Maories and others, and accounts have been received of fish, supposed to be salmon, having been seen in the rivers.

No specimens, however, have been examined by competent authorities, and as it is exceedingly easy for people possessing no special knowledge of the appearance of young fish of the salmon family to make mistakes in matters of this kind, I very much doubt whether any reliance can be placed on these accounts. As nearly six years have elapsed since the first consignment was introduced (or nearly five years since the date of the first large importation), many people have assumed that the experiment has proved to be a failure.

Mr. T. F. Cheeseman, the curator of the Auckland Museum and secretary of the Acclimatization Society, in a letter to me, under date of the 5th of July last, says:

> I cannot believe that the attempt to cultivate salmon in New Zealand will prove unsuccessful, for the following reasons: From what is known of the habits of the Californian salmon, it is certain that the young fish make their way down to the sea shortly after hatching, and remain in the sea or estuaries for several years; sometimes, however, taking short runs up the rivers. They do not appear to be fit for reproduction until about four years old, when they proceed up the rivers to deposit their ova. From this, it is obvious that for four years after the hatching of the ova we could hardly expect to see much of the fish. Again, although the fish hatched from 70,000 or 100,000 ova might amount to a good round number, yet, when we consider the enemies which—like the fry of all fish—they would have to contend with, first in the fresh-water streams and later when they reached the sea, there can be no doubt that the number spared to reach maturity would be small; perhaps so small that they might proceed up a large river without being observed.
>
> It must also be remembered that any number of young fry might go down the river to the sea without attracting much attention, as they would naturally be confounded by an incurious person with the white bait, Inanga, and other small fish so common in our rivers. But when the adult fish from this second lot of fry ascend the rivers, then we may expect to hear something of the salmon.

Taking the breeding age of the Californian salmon at four years, this would not be until eight years after the importation of the ova; that is, about the year 1884. To my mind, it will be premature to question the success of the importations until after this date. It is well enough to mention that the facts relating to the introduction of the British salmon into Tasmania strongly corroborate this view.

Salmon ova was brought from Britain, hatched in a suitable establishment on the Derwent River, and turned out into the stream. For years nothing was heard of the fish, and most people believed the introduction a complete failure.

After the lapse of *ten* years, a few grilse were caught in the lower part of the river. The next year they were abundant, and have been steadily increasing ever since. Evidently the mature fish from the original ova had passed up and down the river unnoticed, and it was not until their progeny became mature that the fish were observed.

AMERICAN CANNED FRUITS.

The trade in American canned fruits in New Zealand is constantly increasing, although the fruit grown here compares very favorably with that of the United States.

The New Zealand peaches and apricots are said to be absolutely unsurpassed in richness and delicacy of flavor, and they grow here in the

greatest abundance; but there is, nevertheless, a strong prejudice in favor of American fruit, and the people here seem indisposed to do without it.

I give below a table showing the quantity and value of American canned fruits imported into the colony of New Zealand for each year since 1870.

Table showing the quantity and value of American canned fruit imported into New Zealand, for each year, from 1870 to 1880, inclusive.

Year.	Quantity.	Value.
	Packages.	
1870	57	$212 00
1871	80	700 00
1872	21	100 00
1873	66	395 00
1874	115	1,585 00
1875	259	2,005 00
1876	825	5,390 00
1877	656	3,900 00
1878	860	7,095 00
1879	656	6,515 00
1880	639	6,611 00

The fruits imported from the United States consist principally of pears, grapes, apricots, peaches, plums, prunes, cherries, and apples. They are put up in two-pound tin cans and packed in cases, each case containing about two dozen cans.

The duty charged on them is 15 per cent ad valorem. The prices are fluctuating and vary according to the supply and demand.

These fruits have been sold from $2 to $3.95 per dozen cans. Among the brands used here are J. C. Kraft & Co., Baltimore Cutting Packing Company; Wangenheim & Co., Code Edfield & Co., San José Packing Company, of California, &c.

NEW ZEALAND CANNED FRUITS.

During the last few years some enterprise has been displayed on the part of several firms engaged in canning fruits in New Zealand.

The best qualities of peaches and apricots are selected and the cans hermetically sealed in accordance with the mode practiced in the United States. One firm at the Thames has ordered machinery from Chicago for the manufacture of tins on a large scale. It is said that only the best quality of tin is to be used and that the cans are to be soldered on the outside.

The fruits put up at the Thames and in Auckland are packed in 2½-pound cans and sell for about $2.25 per dozen. The retail price is 25 cents per can.

The best New Zealand canned fruits that I have examined are put up by Ludlow & Co. and R. Hudson, at the Thames.

BRITISH PRESERVED FRUITS.

The fruits imported into New Zealand from Great Britain are principally of the manufacture of J. T. Morton and Crosse & Blackwell, of London. They consist of rhubarb, blackberries, quinces, black currants, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, and gooseberries. They are packed in glass bottles, each bottle holding about two pounds of fruit. They

come in cases, each case containing two dozen. The duty charged on them is 25 cents per dozen. The price is from $2.50 to $3 per dozen bottles, duty paid.

CALIFORNIA HONEY.

Although there are a large number of bee farms in New Zealand which produce a fair quality of honey, the people express a decided preference for that imported from the United States. It is much clearer and of a more delicious flavor.

That put up by Cutting & Co. and Sol. Wangenheim, of San Francisco, comes packed in two-pound cans, with screw nozzles, and in two-pound glass jars. The price of the cans is from $2.50 to $3 per dozen, and the jars from $3 to $3.50 per dozen.

Honey comes into the colony free of duty. It is not likely that American honey will be superseded by any other, and especially so if care is taken in packing it and only the best quality sent here.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, N. Z., August 10, 1881.

BRITISH "FREE TRADE" AND "FAIR TRADE."

REPORT BY CONSUL DOCKERY, OF LEEDS.

* * * * * * *

Doubt is said to be the key to knowledge. I am convinced the key is then in a fair way to being discovered, but there is still a master key to the situation which will necessitate a very long voyage of discovery, unless its hiding place be sought in quite a different spirit to that which has prevailed in this country during the past thirty years, where every man's soul has been mortgaged as it were to a single idea—self.

Trade depression has now existed several years, and appears to get no better; indeed it is now assuming very large proportions, having become to a certain extent chronic. This has led to agitation against free trade under the several names of Fair Trade, Reciprocity, and Protection, terms nearly synonymous, which agitation is daily growing in extent and in bitterness.

The press is full of a correspondence which shows that the idea of protection is widely spread. The protectionist puts his case in these words:

To buy cheap is excellent, no doubt, but unless you are able to sell dear it is of very little use to you. Man cannot live by buying alone. And we have, as a matter of fact, got now to a stage when we find it hard to sell. We are being beaten out of the world's markets, not, as we ought to be, by free-trade nations, but by protectionist nations. We struggle and wriggle with their tariffs and seek to make treaties of commerce that shall lighten those tariffs. We demand concessions; and the foreigner smiles, for we have nothing to give in return.

The world is against us. Wherever we turn there is a prohibitory tariff, especially, and of malice prepense, directed against our special manufactures.

What, then, are we to do? There is, indeed, a weapon with which we too may fight; that is, a tariff of our own. But then there comes a free-trader and says, "This weapon is sharp; you may cut your own fingers with it. "Do not meddle with edge tools. Bare your breast and in time the foreigner will yield to the force of reason."

Is not this pretty?

* * * * * * *

Free trade might be a first-rate thing in an unreal or communistic world, but it will not do in ours. Policy governs nations as well as indi-

viduals, and it is quite possible that there should be all policy and no principle in some special application of free trade, which I must say would constitute a very discreditable exception. England is really such an exception.

* * * * * * *

Free trade really meant to her nothing less than protection, because she was then in the full swing of manufacturing prosperity and supremacy. She excelled every other nation in all the great manufacturing industries; and by means of a well-conceived system of wars, resulting in the establishment of numerous colonies affording new markets, aided by her large quantity of improved machinery and her inexhaustible supply of coal, she had managed virtually to control the markets of the world.

To a country like this free trade was a splendid policy, and had other countries adopted it she would certainly have continued to benefit to their detriment, for it would have resulted in the establishment of the most gigantic monopoly the world ever saw.

"Protection" is far too mild a term to apply to such a monopoly as that would have been.

The great free trade theory principle in truth meant cruel monopoly, and artful as were the means adopted to obtain this object, its failure has been signally ignominious.

So long as no serious obstacle in the shape of a protective tariff was encountered, English manufacturers continued to thrive, and with the acquisition of wealth many of them affected to turn themselves into country gentlemen for the sake of social standing, the effect of which was an increase in the value of land and, consequently, rents, and a period of general inflation followed.

Other countries not only refused to listen to the free-trader but set to work to more effectually protect their own small but growing industries, taking advantage of all open markets and giving nothing in return. In time they were able to manufacture enough to supply the home markets, and having these practically safe they turned their attention abroad, and in seeking an outlet for their surplus in productions they came into competition with England. On the other hand England had been undergoing a great change; rents had become so high that farmers were ruined or else farms remained unlet, which, with a succession of bad harvests, caused large deficiencies in the food product to be made good by importation. The cost of the necessaries of life had become higher; new markets for her manufactures were difficult to find; the quality of the manufactures had deteriorated, and labor had become uncertain and less productive. This was the state of affairs when she found herself called upon to face a powerful, vigilant, and intelligent competition in markets she hitherto monopolized.

India is yet a comparatively open market through the pressure of an enormous garrison, but this may not last long if there be anything in the following opinion of an intelligent Hindoo merchant, reported in one of the London papers:

Free trade may be a very nice thing for England, but it is a very bad thing for India. We are now undersold and ruined in every direction as regards our manufactures.

The cost of living is greatly increased, and the value of the rupee has diminished.

Before we had the disadvantage of acquaintance with England these millions of people manufactured everything required for their own wants, and the native governments protected their own manufactures.

Now, England has got a firm hold of this great peninsula; she buys the raw material here and in other countries, and inundates India and undersells us in everything, with cheap goods and clothes of all descriptions. What is the result to India? The people have been ruined and driven into the fields as laborers and agriculturists, that the

people of Manchester and Birmingham may make millions of money at our expense. We are beaten and undersold at every point, and still the Manchester Chamber of Commerce cries for further reduction of our import duties for their advantage and our greater ruin.

This is what you call governing India for the Indians.

You must be great fools if you think that the people of India cannot and do not understand and see through all these false pretenses.

You must be greater fools if you think that we love English rule because it is just. We prefer our own rule—the rule of Hindoo and Mohammedan kings and princes, who spent the revenues of India and did not export them to London for the payment of large pensions to thousands of officers and civilians, as well as to the wives and families of the same.

The English do not spend half their large incomes in India.

Sahib, remember you are only encamped in India; we see the flash of your bayonets at every station, and we know what devils you are to fight against black races.

But we are a patient people. We wait for the time when you will have great wars, demanding all your men and ships, when you will meet with defeat; then you will have to withdraw large numbers of your soldiers from India.

France has recently given a fillip to the free-traders, by increasing her tariff and terminating a treaty of commerce, and while some people urge, with force and vigor, that nothing should be done by England, others want skillful retaliation, forgetting that this may cause a further increase in the French tariff.

Of course the United States, on account of its continued devotion to protection, has come in for a full share of abuse from free-traders, but she has been well able to bear it, and can stand a great deal more without foregoing one iota of a policy which has raised the country to its present proud and prosperous position.

I also believe that we can look on with perfect indifference to any agitation for retaliation which may arise, because England is absolutely dependent upon us for the greater part of her breadstuffs, and is likely to continue so; and, furthermore, a corn duty could not sensibly affect us were it possible to impose it, for the simple reason that they would have to buy our corn under any circumstances. Powerful as the present fair-trade agitation has become, I do not apprehend it will ever reach the point of taxing food.

Free trade indirectly ruined agriculture, the mainstay of every country, in England, but a corn duty, protection, can never mend the matter. The root of the evil lies in the land system itself, land having become so very dear through the abnormal state of things brought about by free trade, that even by charging excessive rents the return to the landowner barely amounts to 2 per cent.; and even a great decline in the price of land, followed by a proportionate reduction in rents, will not enable England to produce anything like the amount of breadstuffs required for home consumption.

Landlords in England are disinclined, if able, to make the necessary sacrifice; and, by consequence, I can see no permanent way out of the difficulty. A temporary benefit might be derived by taxing everything (breadstuffs excepted) that comes into the country, but as the home market is as yet practically secure against the invasion of foreign manufactures, it would scarcely be thought worth while to stultify themselves by such a direct proclamation of the failure of so cherished a principle as free trade.

But the home market being thus secure, the people know well enough that no new markets can be opened by a tariff; and, as new markets are really needed, this causes whatever there is of hesitation on the part of "*fair*-traders."

A. V. DOCKERY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leeds, September 1, 1881.

THE BRITISH TARIFF.

REPORT OF CONSUL DOCKERY, OF LEEDS.

One has become so used to hear custom-houses derided by Englishmen that one naturally concludes there is no such thing in England. Excepting the customs officers, I venture to assert there are not 300 people in England, however intelligent otherwise, who know anything about the amount of duties annually collected, the number of dutiable articles, or the per cent. of duty some of these articles pay. Their ignorance on this subject is truly remarkable. Perhaps they have been too much occupied with the task of correcting the shortcomings of other nations to pay any attention to their own failings. They pretend to be free-traders at home; they claim they have a free breakfast table for the poor man; neither is true.

They affect great repugnance to any country that has a tariff of 50 or 100 per centum ad valorem on any article. In their own country on one article a duty of nearly *two thousand per cent.* is charged and collected; this article yields them their largest item of customs revenue, and it comes chiefly from the United States. Tobacco is the article. It is classed in their own tariff list as an article subject to "ordinary import duty," in contradistinction to a "countervailing duty," such, for instance, as the customs duty on spirits, and everything else subject to internal-revenue duty. On tobacco (which is in very general use by the laboring classes in England, and which is consequently of the cheapest kind), the duty ranges, according to moisture, from 84 to 92 cents per pound for the raw or unmanufactured article, and, if manufactured, it pays a duty of from $1.04 to $1.16 per pound. This is called (in England) a revenue duty. I cannot see it in that light, as the manipulated article is distinctly charged, say 20 cents per pound more than the raw article. As a matter of fact, it is so strongly protective that it prevents Americans from successfully competing with the English manufacturer in England, owing to their being handicapped with an additional 20 cents per pound on the manufactured article.

This is an enormous protection. A great part of the tobacco consumed in England is of an inferior quality, its original cost at the American shipping port having been not more than 6 cents per pound. It pays, if not manipulated, say a 92-cent revenue duty on entering England, and if made into smoking or plug tobacco it pays 1.16, or an additional 24 cents per pound duty. Here we have a revenue duty of, say, *fifteen hundred and thirty per cent.*, and a further strictly protective duty of *four hundred per cent.*, making in all a duty of *nineteen hundred and thirty* per cent.

Cigars pay a duty of $1.32 per pound. I do not give undue prominence to this one article, since it is one from which the large amount of *forty-three million dollars* of *duty* were collected last year.

Another item, tea, pays 12 cents per pound duty. This is *not* a protective duty, but it does not allow the free breakfast table, yet at this rate some of it pays as much as 100 per cent., and the total duty collected from this source last year amounted to *eighteen millions of dollars.* It is more generally consumed in England than in any other civilized

country, and is a requisite of the breakfast table, yet we are told there is a free breakfast table.

Coffee, another article people use at the "breakfast table," pays a duty of 3 cents per pound, but if "ground, prepared, or in any way manufactured," it must pay 4 cents per pound, a protection to coffee-millers of 30 odd per cent. of duty.

Cocoa, in the raw state, pays 2 cents per pound, but if "ground, prepared, or in any way manufactured," it pays 4 cents per pound; in other words, the duty on the manufactured article is double that on the raw article.

The foregoing are some of the duties in force in England, and they are sufficient to show that this is *not* a free-trade country in the full sense of the term. Comparatively to population, more revenue is annually collected at English custom-houses than at those of any other country in the world, excepting the United States, the total amount collected during the past year having reached $96,000,000, while the United States, with nearly twice as large a population, collected $186,000,000 in the same period. Germany, with a much larger population than England, collected from customs $78,000,000.

The chief items of receipt under the head of customs duties for England, during the past year were from—

Chicory	$360,000
Cocoa	230,000
Coffee	1,025,000
Currants	1,380,000
Figs	130,000
Raisins	775,000
Rum	11,510,000
Brandy	7,935,000
Tea	18,500,000
Tobacco and snuff	43,000,000
Wine	7,000,000

The following is a list of dutiable articles, viz: Alcohol, ale, beer, brandy, playing cards, chicory, chloroform, chloral, hydrate, cigars and cigarettes, cocoa, coffee, collodion, cologne water, cordials, currants, in essence of spruce, ether, iodide of ethyl, figs, fig-cake, preserved fruit (in spirits), naphtha, pickles, gold and silver plate, plums and prunes, raisins, soap, gin, rum, whisky, all other spirits, wine and varnish, and besides these there are about ninety or one hundred articles, chiefly from America, and principally patent medicines, which are held to be liable to duty at the rate of $3.36 per gallon.

There are in Great Britain and Ireland no less than 133 customs districts, each with a collector or superintendent and subordinates. In London alone the number of customs officers exceeds 1,550, while in Liverpool about 650 are employed, aggregating for the two ports 2,200 officials. These facts and figures do not look well as regards the much-vaunted idea of a free and untrammeled trade! However, they prove conclusively the general idea I have advanced, that there has been only the semblance of free trade in England all the while that the advocates of free trade were so assiduously endeavoring to persuade other nations to adopt their theory, and as practice and theory have not been in accord here, they should not be surprised if their motives are impugned to the extent of asserting that sharp practice was resorted to in order to establish an illimitable monopoly.

Now, I beg to submit a statement of the revenue and expenditure of the British and American Governments, respectively, for the year 1879–'80. For this purpose I take the pound sterling to represent five dollars,

and state the item in millions and fractions thereof; which, though not quite exact, approximates closely enough.

BRITISH REVENUE.

Source.	Amount, in millions of dollars.
Customs	96. 6
Excise (internal revenue)	126. 5
Stamp duty	56. 5
Land and house tax	13. 35
Income tax	16. 15
Post-office	31. 75
Telegraphs	7. 1
Crown lands	1. 95
Miscellaneous	26. 4
Total revenue	406. 3

BRITISH EXPENDITURES.

Account.	Amount, in millions of dollars.
Interest on debt	143. 81
Army and Navy	153. 36
Civil list, pensions, &c	8.
Civil service and miscellaneous	116. 6
Total expenditure	421. 77
Leaving a deficit of	15. 47

AMERICAN REVENUE.

Source.	Amount, in millions of dollars.
Customs	186. 5
Internal revenue (excise)	124
Land sales	1. 015
Miscellaneous	22
Total revenue	333. 515

AMERICAN EXPENDITURES.

Account.	Amount, in millions of dollars.
Interest on debt	95. 75
Army and Navy	51. 65
Indians and pensions	62. 7
Civil service and miscellaneous	57. 5
Total expenditure	267. 6

Leaving a surplus of 65.915 million dollars.

It will be observed that from three items, viz, stamp duty, land and

house tax, and income tax, not charged in America, England collects the sum of $116,000,000 annually.

In truth, everything is taxed either directly or indirectly in this country, every article of foreign or home manufacture being levied upon in some way or other, to help swell the amount of revenue necessary to carry on the government. Owners of land and houses, occupiers of land and houses as well, all professions, all traders, incomes from whatever source, deeds, probates, legacies and successions, bills of exchange and receipts, patents, carriages, horses, man-servants, guns, dogs, and personal property generally, must all pay. The poor-tax is another very heavy tax, being levied upon occupiers of houses, and the total amount of this tax during the year 1879 for England and Wales was $65,000,000, or more than $2.50 per head of population. More than one-third of this amount was expended for other purposes than the relief of the poor, the payments towards country, borough, and police rate, to highway and school boards having amounted to upwards of $22,000,000. The actual relief to the poor during the year amounted to $1.55 per head of population, and the number of paupers was 843,000.

Until a fortnight ago there was a prospect of a good harvest throughout the United Kingdom, but since then hope has been dissipated by continued bad weather, and we may expect as the result of another short and bad grain crop to hear of more farmers ruined, more farms thrown up, a greater depression in trade, a large emigration, and a more fully developed *fair-trade* agitation than we have had.

Where this agitation will end I do not presume to say, but from such observations as I have been able to make I do not think it can accomplish anything that may be of permanent good in the country, because the evil that has been done is irremediable. As a consequence, British commercial interests must continue to decline, and while I regret the prospect I take consolation in the knowledge that American commercial interests are destined to be inversely affected.

A. V. DOCKERY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leeds, September 1, 1881.

ANALYSIS OF FRENCH PRODUCTS.

REPORT OF CONSUL-GENERAL WALKER, OF PARIS.

I have the honor to transmit herewith the results of an official analysis of various French products, as reported by the bureau of the city of Paris, recently established.

This report was kindly furnished by the prefecture de police, and covers a period of six months, ending August 31, 1881.

GEORGE WALKER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Paris, October 7, 1881.

[Translation.]

ANALYSIS MADE DURING THE MONTH OF MARCH, 1881.

Kind of samples.	Good.	Passable.	Bad.	Total.
Wines	23	59	136	218
Vinegar	1	1	1	3
Beer	2		2	4
Cider			2	2
Sirup			1	1
Drinking water	2		2	4
Milk and cream	10	7	18	35
Butter and cheese	2		3	5
Oil and lard	2		2	4
Flour, cereals, vegetables, fruits	6	2	2	10
Bread, pastry, pastes	1			1
Meats and preserves	8		1	9
Salt, pepper, spices	2	2	6	10
Coffee, chicory, tea		1		1
Chocolate	1			1
Honey	2			2
Sweetmeats	1			1
Dyestuffs, varnish (used for coloring alimentary substances)	1	2		3
Hanging-paper				
Pottery, tin, and lead			1	1
Embalming	11			11
Drugs and medicines				
Perfumery, soaps		1	1	2
Miscellaneous		1		1
Total	75	76	178	329

ANALYSIS MADE DURING THE MONTH OF APRIL, 1881.

Wines	8	29	106	143
Vinegar	2	4	3	9
Beer		1	2	3
Cider		1	7	8
Alcohol and liquors	2		1	3
Sirup	1		1	2
Drinking water	1		5	6
Milk, cream	11	6	22	39
Butter and cheese	5	1		6
Oil and lard	1			1
Flour, cereals, vegetables, fruits	1		2	3
Pastes, bread, pastry	1		2	3
Sugar, confectionery	1			1
Eggs, meats	10		3	13
Preserves				
Salt, pepper, spices	17		7	24
Coffee, chicory, tea	13			13
Chocolate		4	7	11
Honey				
Sweetmeats	1		8	9
Dyestuffs (used for coloring alimentary substances)		3		3
Toys		2		2
Hanging paper	1			1
Pottery, pewter	73		23	96
Embalming				
Drugs and medicines		2		2
Perfumery, soaps		1		1
Miscellaneous		1		1
Total	149	55	199	403

ANALYSIS MADE DURING THE MONTH OF MAY, 1881.

Wines	6	41	184	231
Vinegar	1	5	5	11
Beer	3		1	4
Cider		1	2	3
Alcohol and liquors	3	4	7	14
Sirup	1	3	5	9
Water		1		1
Milk	19	3	83	105
Butter and cheese	5		1	6
Oil and lard	1		1	2
Flour, cereals, vegetables	4	1	1	6
Pastes, bread, pastry	19	7		26
Sugar, confectionery	13		3	16

ANALYSIS MADE DURING THE MONTH OF MAY, 1881—Continued.

Kind of samples.	Goood.	Passable.	Bad.	Total.
Meats and pork	8	1	3	12
Preserves				
Salt, pepper, spices	8	2	10	20
Coffee, chicory, tea	5		2	7
Chocolate	3	6	9	18
Honey				
Sweetmeats				
Dyestuffs and varnish	3	3	4	10
Toys	3	1	34	38
Hanging paper				
Potteries, pewter	4	6	13	23
Embalming			17	17
Drugs and medicine	2	1	2	5
Perfumery and soaps	2		3	5
Miscellaneous		1	3	4
Total	113	87	393	593

ANYLSIS MADE DURING THE MONTH OF JUNE, 1881.

Wines	14	123	318	455
Vinegar	7	5	4	16
Beer	14	3	6	23
Cider	1	5	16	22
Alcohol and liquors	3	6	6	15
Sirups	5	7	10	22
Water	1	1	7	9
Milk and cream	40	20	120	180
Butter and cheese	5	4	10	19
Oil and lard	4	2	6	12
Flour, cereals, vegetables	1	3	1	5
Bread, alimentary pastes	3	3	2	8
Sugar, confectionery	5	5		10
Meat, pork, eggs, fish	7	1	3	11
Preserves	5	3		8
Salt, pepper, spices	4	2	48	54
Coffee, chicory, tea	2	5	2	9
Chocolate	3	7	16	26
Honey	7	7	1	15
Sweetmeats	1	2	5	8
Dyestuffs and varnish (used for coloring alimentary substances)	5		10	15
Toys	2			2
Pewter, pottery		2		2
Perfumery, soaps	1	2		4
Drugs and medicines	3	2	1	6
Miscellaneous	3	2	5	10
Total	146	222	596	966

ANALYSIS MADE DURING THE MONTH OF JULY, 1881.

Wines	15	188	209	412
Vinegar	3	4	3	10
Beer	10	1	5	16
Cider	2	1	3	6
Alcohol, liquors	2	1	2	5
Sirups	2			2
Waters	1	1	11	13
Milk	31	21	112	164
Butter	1	2	2	5
Oils	5	1	5	11
Flour	1		3	4
Bread, pastes	3		3	6
Meats	3	2	2	7
Preserves	9		8	17
Salt, pepper	1			1
Coffee, chicory	1		1	2
Chocolate	1	2		3
Sweetmeats		1	3	4
Dye stuffs (used in coloring alimentary substances)	5		6	11
Toys			1	1
Pottery, pewter	3	1	4	8
Perfumery	4		28	32
Miscellaneous	4	4	4	12
Total	107	230	415	752

ANALYSIS MADE DURING THE MONTH OF AUGUST, 1881.

Kind of samples.	Good.	Passable.	Bad.	Total.
Wines	23	155	225	403
Vinegar	3	2	3	8
Beer	7	1	5	13
Cider	.....	1	.....	1
Alcohol and liquors	1	1	5	7
Sirups	.....	1	2	3
Water	2	1	16	19
Milk and cream	24	7	46	77
Butter and cheese	1	.....	1	2
Oil and lard	1	.....	4	5
Flour, cereals, vegetables	1	1	4	6
Bread, alimentary pastes	1	.....	2	3
Sugar, confectionery	1	.....	.....	1
Meat, pork, eggs, fish	1	.....	3	4
Preserves	11	7	.....	18
Salt, pepper, spices	8	2	3	13
Coffee, chicory, tea	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chocolate	2	2	.....	4
Honey	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sweetmeats	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dyestuffs (used for coloring alimentary substances)	.....	.....	.....	.....
Toys	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pottery, pewter	3	.....	.....	3
Perfumery, soaps	1	.....	.....	1
Embalming	19	.....	.....	19
Miscellaneous	1	1	3	5
Total	111	182	322	615

THE FOOD CROPS IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL DITHMAR, OF BRESLAU.

Favored by good weather, the grain crop in this province and throughout the greater part of Prussia has been harvested, and promises a yield in some cases double that of last year. The estimates made in June and July will probably in no instance be found too high, but may, in some cases, for the first time prove too low. Accepting the figures 100 as representative of a fair average crop, the estimates for this year were:

	Per cent.
Wheat	80
Rye	77
Barley	89
Oats	89
Potatoes	95

Last year, as the following table shows, the crops fell far short of the estimates:

Products.	Estimated crop.	Actual crop.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*
Wheat	105	75
Rye	78	55
Barley	104	70
Oats	101	70
Potatoes	106	68

The yield of rye alone in Prussia in 1880 was 700,000 tons less than an average crop. In the district known as Lower Lusatia, on the northern border of Silesia, the yield was only 38 per cent.

The table of the imports and exports of the empire for the six months ending June 30, 1881, and for the corresponding period of the previous

year, strikingly shows the deficiency of the food crops in 1880. From this table it appears that the imports of flour during the first six months of the present year exceeded those of the first six months of 1880 by 29,782 tons (of 2,240 pounds), while the exports of flour during the same period of 1880 exceeded those of 1881 by 27,315 tons. Of wheat the amount imported in 1881 (January to July) was 172,800 tons against 22,900 tons in the first six months of 1880, while the exports in the same period of last year were 151,599 tons against only 23,800 tons in 1881.

Of rye there was an excess of 66,438 tons imported in 1881, as compared with 1880, and the export decreased 18,357 tons. Of potatoes alone, among the food crops, the amount purchased abroad—17,401 tons—was less than in 1880, but, on the other hand, the export fell from 383,213 tons to 13,902 tons.

The quantity of oats imported in 1881 was 101,465 tons, against 23,536 tons in 1880. The barley imported amounted to 117,840 tons in 1881, against 42,593 tons in 1880; while the exports in 1880 were 83,463 tons, and those of 1881 only 25,739 tons.

The large importation of food supplies had, of course, the effect of augmenting the customs revenues, the increase for the fiscal year 1880–'81 being given at $10,638,600. Of a number of articles, however, the importation fell off considerably, owing to the fact that the stocks on hand had been largely increased before the new tariff law went into effect; otherwise the revenue exhibit would have been still more favorable. The following articles, most of which were formerly on the free list, paid import duties amounting to $12,233,152.

Grain	$3,501,456
Lard	1,299,242
Meat	669,494
Silk fabrics	537,642
Cotton fabrics	1,220,702
Iron wares	1,190,000
Woolen fabrics	1,215,228
Lumber	924,868
Oils	535,500
Linen fabrics	533,834
Leather fabrics	343,910
Machinery, &c	262,276
Total	12,233,152

The following is the table, before referred to, of the imports and exports for the first six months of 1880 and 1881. It shows, among other things, that the petroleum importers here have little faith in the promised productiveness of the oil wells recently sunk in some parts of Germany, the yield from which, according to the most trustworthy accounts, is very small in quantity, as well as poor in quality. The figures in the table represent tons of 2,240 pounds, except in the case of live stock:

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1881.	1880.	1881.	1880.
	Tons.	*Tons*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
Pig and scrap iron	99,175	91,719	166,272	186,477
Manufactures in whole or in part of iron	18,781	20,793	357,314	335,348
Cotton	91,431	83,633	9,069	5,917
Cotton yarn	7,900	5,741	5,161	6,308
Cotton fabrics	720	728	11,405	11,537
Wool	41,943	43,740	12,055	15,504
Woolen yarn	7,203	7,824	1,859	2,640
Woolen fabrics	1,296	1,374	9,659	9,630
Silk	1,718	1,818	674	662
Silk fabrics	225	234	1,999	2,190

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1881.	1880.	1881.	1880.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
Linen yarn and thread	6,397	4,975	926	960
Linen fabrics	3,883	2,715	1,819	2,076
Flax and hemp	53,981	42,594	32,710	27,455
Jute	9,696	10,327	139	148
Lumber	758,005	810,673	286,821	504,840
Wooden wares	5,214	5,139	17,342	19,136
Wheat	172,800	22,900	23,800	151,559
Rye	271,098	202,660	3,355	21,702
Oats	101,465	60,453	18,743	23,536
Barley	117,870	42,593	25,739	83,463
Pulse	16,979	9,466	12,334	25,164
Oil seed	37,483	34,142	9,754	21,296
Potatoes	13,902	17,401	86,739	383,213
Flour	42,787	13,005	22,498	49,813
Lard	20,961	24,002	10	23
Butter	1,861	2,281	6,652	6,526
Eggs	8,645	9,184	1,092	1,571
Wine	25,882	24,658	8,007	9,462
Leaf tobacco	8,449	3,404	165	90
Coffee	54,806	43,562	.....	.....
Rice	42,933	35,626	.....	.....
Tea	607	301	.....	.....
Sugar	2,079	2,181	108,629	69,498
Petroleum	153,172	86,133	.....	.....
Stone coal and coke	883,213	1,111,965	3,847,198	3,670,284
Brown coal	1,417,294	1,498,011	9,087	8,076
Horses ..... head	32,374	33,601	9,758	10,628
Meat cattle, including calves ..... do	84,881	61,450	103,531	101,416
Hogs and pigs ..... do	647,396	560,823	246,331	260,613
Sheep ..... do	11,143	13,270	706,341	740,932

HENRY DITHMAR,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Breslau, August 27, 1881.

THE CROPS IN HUNGARY.

REPORT OF CONSUL STERNE, OF BUDA-PESTH.

In consequence of the unfavorable weather, the general result of the harvest cannot be called a good one, and all sorts of grain and other crops taken in the aggregate will barely come up to that of last year (which was also short) in quantity as well as quality. Especially the extensive and most productive of prairie lands have done poorly, as they are not sufficiently protected against the recurring inundations, which, more than anything else, have been the scourge of the Hungarian farmers during the past years.

In detail, I will say that in comparison wheat and rye have done a little better than last year, while barley and oats have not done as well, all falling below what is here called a "middle" harvest. The prospect for corn is good thus far; grapes are not hxpected to do as well in quantity as in quality, therefore little beyond a good vintage is looked for; prunes are considered a failure in Bosnia and Servia, but Bohemia promises well in their place.

In all there will be sufficient for home demand and also some of each for export, but for this latter there will be least of all of wheat, for the surplus will nearly all be required to supply the large mills of the State which work for export. The prices of grain will naturally be very high, and in consequence of cheap competition from elsewhere the export will labor under great difficulties. Of course the mills will be affected to

the same extent indirectly, but nevertheless they will be kept running, if only to keep their customers until possibly better times recur, for there is too large an interest at stake in this branch to let them fall into disuse.

The government seeing the necessity of assisting the producer and miller to overcome the temporary unfavorable situation, has reduced the rates of freight on the railroads under its control, and has also relaxed in other matters which might at present interfere with a profitable export trade.

There is another cause which must militate against this year's grain export, namely, the fact that Roumania's crop is also very deficient, for the bulk of this latter usually passes through the hands of Hungarian dealers or millers in the shape of Hungarian flour for further export.

On account of this double failure of crops, the moment might perhaps be thought favorable for the importation of American wheat either into Hungary or into Fiume, which is a sea-port and has several large mills; but upon investigation I find that though there is foreign grain used at the latter place, there is at present no chance for any American, as the Russian wheat is preferred on account of its quality (possibly a mere unreasonable prejudice, for American wheat has never been tried there), and also because it can be laid down there cheaper than American wheat, as shown by comparing the present prices of wheat in New York and Fiume, for Russian wheat was sold at $1.50 per bushel at the latter place last September. The additional railroad freight, of course, entirely precludes the idea of bringing foreign grain into the interior of the State.

However, our Indian corn may have a better chance at Fiume, for there are eleven mills at that place which only grind corn, nearly all of which is imported. Our consular agent at Fiume informs me that there was some American corn used there last year, which came by way of Trieste. I have not learned with what success this was introduced, but it certainly would have been greater had it been shipped direct to where it was used. It is to be hoped our exporters will further investigate the practicability of this outlet for one of the main products of the United States.

On the 7th instant the annual *Saaten-Markt* was held here. This is a grain or corn exchange or fair, established for the purpose of facilitating trade by bringing producers, dealers, and purchasers into direct communication. Formerly these meetings were of great importance, for they afforded the means of discovering the real strength of the states' supply of grain, and thereby prices having a controlling influence on the markets of all Europe were fixed. However, since the United States have become the main factor in this line, the *Saaten-Markt* has lost its importance to such a degree that the chamber of commerce is considering the question of abolishing it.

It is gratifying to notice the prominence reached by the United States in the grain trade, for now there is hardly a transaction entered here without first consulting the disposition of the American market.

The prices have thus far been so changeable that it is hardly satisfactory to name them. On the 7th instant, the day of the *Saaten-Markt*, they read as follows:

Wheat, best quality, about	$1 40 per bushel of 60 pounds.
Corn, about	71 per bushel of 56 pounds.
Oats, about	44 per bushel of 32 pounds.
Barley, about	1 63 per 100 pounds.
Rye, about	1 63 per 100 pounds.
Prunes, about	4 75 per 100 pounds.

Grain is usually sold on sixty or ninety days' time.

An exhibition of agricultural tools and implements was announced to be held in conjunction with the *Saaten-Markt*, but I regret to say that I did not find thereat a single article coming from the United States, although England, France, and even Hungary itself, were represented.

Of course it cannot be asserted that there may not be some American goods sold in this market, but judging by the manner in which they were here shown, I am sure that they are not urged on the trade in this locality by the American manufacturer or dealer as they should be, and that therefore only a trifling proportion is sold here in comparison to what there might and should be.

But it would be wrong to lay the blame for this on the Hungarian dealers, for what is it to them whose goods they sell so long as they make their profit. It cannot be expected that they should buy goods they have never seen or heard of save through circulars in English, which can only be read or understood by the favored few.

I am very sorry that there is not a more practical mode applied to introduce our goods, for without being over sanguine, I believe that their export to Hungary can be greatly increased even with the present demand.

There are indications that there will soon be a radical change in the mode of farming here, for with the old method the state is daily losing ground, and this must not be attributed to the score of bad seasons alone. Besides this, the attention of our manufacturers and dealers should be called to the fact that since the states of the Lower Danube have gained their independence, they are developing rapidly, and, being mostly agricultural, will in the course of time require a great deal of machinery. The dealers are anticipating great results from this source, and are working already with the object of securing the control of this trade. Of course all these people will have to be educated to the use of machinery and tools of modern form and construction; this was accomplished gradually in states farther west, where there existed at one time as much prejudice as there is at present here to the adoption of everything novel and more especially American; but self-preservation will, no doubt, compel these people also to adopt present practices. Those who take the pains to thus teach them will, in the end, of course, reap the benefit. England, for instance, sees this clearly, and, according to the newspapers, its agents are quite busy in these new territories.

The most practical way to advertise is to show the goods where trade is expected. This at least is the accepted practice at home in the United States. It is well known that there no distance, trouble, or expense is considered too great to accomplish this object, and the smallest county fair is not ignored for the purpose. The next or rather the first consideration is to place the goods in the hands of agents who will give them their individual attention, for no agent can do justice to his charge if his interest is scattered over many articles. It seems ridiculous to argue upon a point which in the United States meets with no dispute, and the above is only set forth as a query to our manufacturers whether they expect wonders to happen away from home, for it really would be a wonder if people were to buy goods which they, in most cases, have never seen or heard of.

Fortunately I have at hand a very practical illustration showing what can be done. One of our largest manufacturers of scales (Fairbanks & Co.) have had a special agent here to introduce their goods. By perseverance he succeeded in inducing the city authorities to adopt the Fairbanks' system of scales for the large new warehouses. Upon trial

they were pronounced so excellent by experts that the council has now adopted them for the large elevator now building. This success will not only be valuable for its direct result, but also for the creditable manner in which it introduces this class of goods into the state at large; of course our dealers must not expect great returns at once, for in this country it takes time for everything.

It may be stated as an item of interest, that the "International Supply Company," of London, limited, has established itself here with the object of exporting dressed beef from here to Paris; Col. W. D. Mann, an American citizen, is the manager, and will ship the beef in refrigerator-cars of his own invention. Owing to the objection from Germany to have beef from this country, even in sealed cars, pass through its territory, the company is compelled to use the railway, via Northern Italy; but the government of Hungary has given the company special privileges, which will probably enable the venture to do business profitably. For this trade only the very best of cattle will be used.

HENRY STERNE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buda-Pesth, September 12, 1881.

THE SEED-GRAIN OF ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL RICE, OF LEGHORN.

Numerous applications have been made to this consulate by producers in the United States, asking for information concerning the different kinds of wheat grown in Tuscany, with the idea of introducing them into the home district for trial. The following is the result of some investigations undertaken in connection with this subject.

The qualities given herein below have been selected, according to the best information, as being the best adapted for the purpose in view; and I append against each an approximate price per 100 kilograms; this price is subject to variation, but, save in times of extreme scarcity, would hardly go much higher.

Gentile.—A fine Tuscan type, in two qualities, red and white; the grain is full and long. Francs, 42 to 45 per 100 kilograms.

Mazzochio.—Tuscan quality, extensively consumed most generally for the manufacture of macaroni and similar pastes being more glutinous; yields well, but the flour is ordinary; the grain is round and of a yellow color. Francs, 40 per 100 kilograms.

Marrolo.—Tuscan, very fair quality, and a good yielder; it is of a reddish color. Francs, 42 to 45 per 100 kilograms.

Cascara.—A fine quality from the Tuscan Maremma; of a reddish color. Francs, 40 per 100 kilograms.

Rieti.—A very fine quality, much used in Tuscany, as it does not appear to suffer from rust; it is a good yielder, and the grain is of a reddish color. Francs, 45 to 50 per 100 kilograms.

There is another quality of wheat raised in Tuscany, principally, however, for its straw, which is extensively used in the manufacture of straw hats.

The *Marrolo* is planted here in February, but all the other qualities are sown between the 15th of September and 1st of December.

The above prices may be calculated in our currency at 19.3 cents to

the franc, and reckoning 221 pounds as equivalent to the hundred kilograms.

WILLIAM T. RICE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leghorn, September 30, 1881.

INTERNATIONAL ART EXHIBITION AT VIENNA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, VIENNA, AUSTRIA.

From the prospectus herewith given below it will be seen that it is proposed to open in this city on April 1, 1882, to remain open until September 30, 1882, an exhibition of national and foreign art, comprising the chief works in painting, sculpture, and engraving, &c., which have been produced since the Vienna Exposition of 1873.

Prizes are to be awarded and regulations in respect to transmission, packing, purchase, and return of objects intended for exposition are duly set forth in the prospectus.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE GENERAL,
Vienna, September 9, 1881.

Prospectus of the International Exhibition of the Viennese Society of Artists, to be held at Vienna in 1882.

§ 1. It is proposed by the Viennese Society of Artists to open from April 1 to September 30, 1882, in their enlarged galleries at Vienna, an exhibition of the chief works of art—both national and foreign—that have been produced since the last great exhibition of 1873.

§ 2. The exhibition will comprise works of architecture, sculpture, die-sinking, painting, and drawing, as well as those of the various arts of reproduction.

§ 3. The management of all affairs concerning the exhibition has been intrusted to a special committee composed as follows:

The mayor of Vienna.
His Excelleney Count Folliot de Crenneville, grand chamberlain to H. I. R. Majesty.
Mr. F. W. Crone, merchant.
Mr. Nicelas Dumba, member of the Austrian Chamber of Deputies.
Dr. Rudolf Eitelberger von Edelberg, director of the I. R. Museum of Industrial Art.
H. S. H. Prince Constantine of Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürft, grand master of the imperial household.
Baron Maurice Königswarter.
Mr. Lonis Lobmeyr, glass manufacturer.
H S. H. the reigning prince of Liechtenftein.
H. S. H. Prince Richard Metternich.
Baron Albert Rothschild.
Mr. Ottocar Richard Weber, head manager of the Bohemian "Escompte Bank" at Prague.
His Excellency Count Wilczek, privy counselor and chamberlain.
His Excellency Count Edmund Zichy, privy counselor and chamberlain.
Mr. Sigmund L'Allemand, painter and professor.
Mr. Henry von Angeli, painter and professor.
Dr. Ernst Bareuther, member of the Austrian Chamber of Deputies.
Edward Ritter von Engerth, painter, professor, and director of the Belvedere Gallery.
Mr. Eugene Felix, painter.
Mr. Frederick Friedländer, painter.
Emil Ritter von Förster, architect.
Baron Charles Hasenauer, architect and professor.

Mr. Charles Kundmann, sculptor and professor.
Edward Ritter von Lichtenfels, painter and professor.
Mr. Hans Makart, painter and professor, president of the Viennese Society of Artists.
Mr. John Nordmann, author and chairman of the Association of Journalist's and Authors "Concordia."
Mr. Francis Pitner, painter.
Mr. Robert Russ, painter.
Mr. Frederick Schackner, architect.
Mr Aloysius Schönn, painter and professor.
Mr. Otto Seybel, treasurer of the Viennese Society of Artists.
Mr. John Sonnenleiter, engraver.
Mr. Andrew Streit, architect and vice-president of the Association of the Artists of Vienna.
Mr. Joseph Tautenhayn, professor; medal engraver to H. I. R. Majesty.
Mr. Victor Tilgner, sculptor.
Mr. Rudolph Weyr, sculptor.
Mr. Alexandre von Wielemans, architect, member of the board of public works.
Mr. William Unger, engraver and professor.
Mr. Caspar Zumbusch, sculptor and professor.

§ 4. The imperial and royal government which has encouraged the undertaking with its warmest patronage, has notified its intention of giving prize medals to the most prominent of the exhibitors, under the award of a jury, composed in proportion from the committee and from the exhibitors themselves, according to their number and nationality.

§ 5. In addition to these and the "Reichl's Artists Prize," His Imperial and Royal Highness the Archduke Charles Louis has presented three gold prize-medals for competition.

§ 6. It is hoped that the treasury will grant adequate funds for the purchase of works, as the exhibition will probably receive the privileges of a national undertaking.

§ 7. A jury chosen from the committee will decide upon the admission of all works sent for exhibition.

§ 8. Works of living artists can only be exhibited with their consent.

§ 9. The committee will pay the transport (including insurance money) of all admitted works, to Vienna and back, on condition that they should be returned to the places whence they were sent.

§ 10. Exhibitors residing in Vienna will have themselves to defray such expenses.

§ 11. A subcommitte will be charged with the arrangement, placing, and hanging of the exhibited objects.

§ 12. While the committee binds itself to insure against fire all the works of art intrusted to it during the period they remain in its custody, and take all possible care of them, it declines to be responsible for accidents or be liable to any claim for their compensation.

Count EDMUND ZICHY,
NICOLAS DUMBA,
Prof. H. MAKART,
A. STREIT,
Prof. H. VON ANGELI,
Presidents.
CHARLES B. WALZ,
Secretary.

A. DE WIELEMANS,
FRANZ PITNER,
Acting Secretaries.

VIENNA, *June*, 1881.

REGULATIONS.

I. CONTENTS OF THE EXHIBITION.

§ 1. The exhibition will embrace the following material:

a. Architecture, sketches, plans, elevations, models, and details of architectural subjects just sufficient to illustrate the idea, and executed (ground plans especially) on the smallest scale. Photographic reductions of the same are admissible.

These works must be stretched, mounted, and framed.

b. Sculpture: every description of sculptured or relieved work, of all sizes, engravings, medal engravings, die-sinking, in all materials, unburnt clay excepted.

c. Painting: paintings in oil or water colors—miniature, crayons, pastel, drawings and glass-stainings.

d. Engraving: steel or copper plates, etchings, xylographs (chromos excepted).

§ 2. All objects under the head *c* and *d* must be sent in a fit condition for exhibition, viz: paintings in oil-colors, and glass-paintings in frames, all others in glazed frames. Oval and round frames, as well as those with chamfered corners are, excluded, unless they are fixed on a rectangular board.

§ 3. No more than three works of the same description can be received from an artist, except by previous agreement. Should any work be of very large size and weigh more than 200 kilograms, it is requested that information be given to the committee before sending it to Vienna.

§ 4. With the sole exception of works of the graphic arts and of drawings and pictures in water colors for engraving purposes, all copies, even if executed in a manner or material differing from that of the original, are excluded. Nor will any work of art be accepted whose subject or form could be found inconvenient or incompatible with with the regards due to the public.

II. TRANSMISSION; PACKING; RETURN; PURCHASES.

§ 5. All objects intended for exhibition must be delivered at the "*Künstlerhaus*" at latest on the first of March before 6 o'clock p. m. Unpunctuality in this respect will make both the reception of the work and the payment of its carriage uncertain. Nor will any claims to the latter be entertained.

The committee begs to recommend to foreign exhibitors the following agents for the carriage of goods:

F. *Trögl*, I., Wildpretmarket 1, } in Vienna.
E. *Bäuml*, I., Hegelgasse 8, }

§ 6. No previous notice of the exhibitor's intention is required, but each case must be accompanied by an information stating the address of the exhibitor, his title and decorations, the designation of the object, the manner in which it is executed, the name of its present owner, the price for which it can be sold, and the value for which it should be insured against fire; these sums may be named in florins, Austrian currency, in marks, or in francs.

Artists resident in Vienna must forward with the work sent similar information in duplicate, one of which, certified by the society, will be returned them as a receipt.

§ 7. Each object must be securely packed in a case of sufficient strength, and only screws should be used for fastening both case and lid. Without this precaution the committee cannot answer for damage in packing and repacking.

§ 8. Each work must have the description with the name and address of the artist legibly marked on its back (if a framed object), or on some other prominent place; this description must be repeated inside the box and inside the lid.

§ 9. The boxes will be opened by a committee, who will take an inventory of their contents.

§ 10. All letters must be prepaid and addressed as well as the objects sent for exhibition: *An die Commission für die internationale Kunstausstellung, Wien, I. Künstlerhaus, Lothringerstrasse* 9.

§ 11. The committee will not pay the carriage for objects sent through the post or by express train.

§ 12. Works rejected by the jury will be forwarded to the proprietor at his own risk and expense, a fortnight after an intimation has been sent him to that effect, unless he disposes of them differently.

§ 13. The committee will acquire a number of native and foreign exhibits with the view of disposing of them by lottery.

Full particulars will, however, be published later.

§ 14. The committee undertake to act as agents for the private sale of all exhibits.

§ 14. The following percentage will be deducted on all sales:

Ten per cent. on sums up to 2,500 florins.

Six per cent. on sums up to 5,000 florins.

Five per cent. on sums exceeding 5,000 florins.

§ 16. At the close of the exhibition all works of art will be returned with the least possible delay to their destination.

Any further particulars not contained in this prospectus will be notified by the committee.

COUNT E. ZICHY,
President.
CHARLES B. WALZ,
Secretary to the Viennese Society of Artists.

A. DE WIELEMANS,
Acting Secretary.

VIENNA, *June*, 1861.

INTERNATIONAL COLONIAL EXPOSITION AT AMSTERDAM.

REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN, OF AMSTERDAM.

The people of Amsterdam, who, as Hollanders or Dutchmen, are sometimes looked upon as a dull and slow people, are again about to furnish evidence of their being in every respect fully up to the spirit of the age, claiming at the same time as they do, and I think rightfully, that in some essential particulars they, as Hollanders, have always been the peers of any people.

At the present time it is contemplated to hold at Amsterdan, in 1883, an international colonial exposition.

The subject has been extensively canvassed and deliberated upon during the year last passed, and, judging from present appearances, it bids fair to become a realized fact.

The city authorities as well as the national government regard the project with great favor, and, as I understand, encourage and assist it.

A site for erecting the exposition buildings upon, consisting of ample and most favorably situated grounds, has already been selected.

A company of Belgian capitalists has already secured, upon certain terms, a concession from the city government here for the erection of the required exposition buildings, laying out and ornamenting the surrounding grounds, &c.

This arrangement is made and depending upon the condition that two great European powers, having colonial possessions, will first signify that they are willing and prepared to participate in the exposition to be held.

The ministry of foreign affairs of this government is, as I am credibly informed, already in communication with the different European governments, having such colonial possessions, with the object in view of insuring their co-operation.

A commission, composed of prominent citizens, with the president of the chamber of commerce of this city at its head, has been for some time and is now active in the matter, and charged with formulating a general programme, for and determining of what the forthcoming "exposition" is to consist, and for taking all necessary measures calculated to insure the consummation of the project and its final success; has prepared and recently published a general programme, of which the following is an extract:

The projected exhibition is to be divided into five great departments—
1st. A colonial exhibition.
2d. General exhibition of export trade.
3d. Retrospective exhibition of art and artistic industry.
4th. Special exhibitions,
5th. Scientific lectures and meetings.

1. The principal object of the whole is the Colonial Exhibition.

A comparative inquiry into the different systems of colonization, tropical agriculture, exploitation of the treasures of the earth, will form an instructive and original school fully worthy of general interest.

It will not be necessary to limit this exhibition to the display of materials and produce, but it must at the same time supply an opportunity to compare the morals and peculiarities of the inhabitants of transmarine regions.

Public works and the means of conveyance, as the primary foundation of prosperity and civilization, should be ostensibly represented.

It is likewise considered important that specimens of the fauna and flora of the colonies, as illustrations of the luxurious nature of the tropical regions, should be represented at this exhibition.

Au', lastly, Army and Na' y, those bulw: rks of liberty, may not be wanting there.

2. The second department is destined for whatever belongs to, or can be classed with, the general export trade.

A large space will be assigned to industry applied to the manipulation of material, whilst industry and trade will further find an extensive field to carry on a loyal competition.

3. The third department presents an opportunity, by the exhibitions of the works of art from the earliest times, of furnishing an instructive picture of the ideas that prevailed on that subject with the aboriginal nations, and how those ideas have been modified under the influence of civilization. A comparative inquiry into the fine arts of various times and nations promises to be highly interesting.

4. The fourth department is intended for temporary exhibitions. These will naturally be for the greater part of a national character, and furnish an opportunity of making foreigners acquainted with the inland produce of agriculture and industry, whilst they will at the same time tend to excite and raise the general interest.

5. The fifth department is not devoted to matter, but to the cultivation of the mind. Scientific discourses and meetings will give scientific men, those pioneers of civilization, an opportunity to impart their ideas and exchange thoughts on the interests of commerce and industry, arts and sciences, international law, education and instruction, health and acclimatization; but colonial political economy, and particularly the relations in which a colony stands to the mother country, will, above all, form a most important topic for a fruitful contention of opinions.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, September 21, 1881.

BUENOS AYRES CONTINENTAL EXPOSITION FOR 1882.

REPORT BY CONSUL BAKER, OF BUENOS AYRES.

The committee in charge of the Continental Exposition, which is proposed to be opened in this city on the 15th of February, 1882, are extremely anxious that the people of the United States should be represented in the department of "machinery," the only one in which competition is open and free for all the world; and in order that our manufacturers of machinery, &c., might be informed as fully as possible of the terms on which entries can be made, I have taken pains to prepare a short statement, embodying the substance of the general regulations, and translating from the catalogue the groups and classes comprehended in the section devoted to machinery; to the end that should it be of sufficient interest, it may appear in the monthly publication of consular reports; or otherwise may reach the public eye. I also inclose a letter from the president of the exposition committee, dated this day, in regard to the space, &c., allotted to the United States.

BUENOS AYRES CONTINENTAL EXPOSITION.

The arrangements for opening a continental exposition in Buenos Ayres (postponed from last year on account of political troubles) are now rapidly progressing. The period for its inauguration is definitely fixed for February 15, 1882, and it will continue open three months. It is held in honor of the third century of the foundation of the city of Buenos Ayres.

The site selected for the buildings is the Plaza 11 de Setiembre—a large open space of about six acres, in the western part of the city, and capable of being handsomely laid out and ornamented; it is quite close to the Western Railway and very accessible from all directions by street cars.

The exposition is under the direct patronage of the "Club Industrial," but the general government has made a very liberal appropriation in its aid.

The necessary structures are already in course of erection, and it is generally considered, owing to the universal sentiment in its favor, that it will be in all respects worthy of the co-operation of other nations. Indeed those of South America have already signified their intention of being represented; and the Emperor of Brazil has authorized the announcement that he will be present at the opening.

The exposition will be divided into six sections, as follows: 1st, natural and agricultural products; 2d, machinery; 3d, industrial products; 4th, fine arts; 5th, public instruction; 6th, animals.

The nations of South America are invited to contribute to all the sections, while Europe and the United States are permitted only to take part in the second and sixth sections, machinery and animals.

The second section is divided into eleven groups, as follows:

MACHINERY.

GROUP 1.—*Machinery and apparatus for the transmission of power.*

CLASS 1. Steam-engines for land and water.
CLASS 2. Hydraulic engines.
CLASS 3. Wind motors.
CLASS 4. Blood motors.
CLASS 5. Gas and electro-magnetic motors and any other system.
CLASS 6. Apparatus for the transmission of power.
CLASS 7. The necessary machinery and apparatus required by this group.

GROUP 2.—*Machinery and apparatus for hydraulic machines.*

CLASS 1. Hydraulic elevating machines—draw-wells (novias), pumps, &c.
CLASS 2. Hydraulic presses.
CLASS 3. Hydraulic indicators, locks, gates, and sluice-ways, dams, and siphons.
CLASS 4. Generally all machinery and utilities required by this group.

GROUP 3.—*Machinery and apparatus for mining and the elaborations of metals.*

CLASS 1. Machinery and instruments for boring, sounding, and inspecting mines.
CLASS 2. Machinery and apparatus for extracting minerals.
CLASS 3. Apparatus for ventilating and draining mines.
CLASS 4. Apparatus for the crushing (*beneficio immediato*) of minerals.
CLASS 5. Furnaces, apparatus for melting metals, and accessories.
CLASS 6. Machinery for separating, sawing, and cutting minerals.
CLASS 7. Apparatus for rolling, pounding, and beating, &c.
CLASS 8. All machinery and apparatus which have any analogy to this group.

GROUP 4.—*Machinery and apparatus intended especially for typography, lithography, casting of types, bookbinding, and the manufacture of paper.*

CLASS 1. Machinery and utilities for the manufacture of paper, &c.
CLASS 2. Lithographic and typographic machinery; utilities for draughting, drawing, &c.
CLASS 3. Machinery for casting types, &c.
CLASS 4. Machinery and apparatus for bookbinding.
CLASS 5. All machinery and apparatus which have an analogy to this group.

GROUP 5.—*Machinery for the preparation, manufacture, and elaboration of textile fabrics, vegetable as well as animal.*

CLASS 1. Machinery and apparatus for silk culture in particular, and the preparation of textile fibers in general.
CLASS 2. Looms of every kind and for all uses.
CLASS 3. Machinery and apparatus for printing and stamping textile fabrics and paper.
CLASS 4. Machinery for the manufacture of shoes.
CLASS 5. Sewing-machines, apparatus for making lace and embroidery, and such as have relation to clothing, &c.
CLASS 6. All machinery and apparatus which have analogy to this group.

GROUP 6.—*Machinery and utensils in the ceramic arts.*

CLASS 1. Machinery and apparatus for making bricks, paving tiles, roofing tiles, stone pipes, artificial stone, &c.
CLASS 2. Machinery and apparatus for making porcelain, crockery ware, and pottery.
CLASS 3. Machinery and apparatus for the manufacture of glass of all kinds.
CLASS 4. Machinery and apparatus for the manufacture of cement, lime, plaster of Paris, concrete, &c.

GROUP 7.—*Machinery and apparatus intended for transportation.*

CLASS 1. Locomotives of all systems intended for rail or tramways.
CLASS 2. Machinery and apparatus for roads.
CLASS 3. Machinery and apparatus for navigation.
CLASS 4. Aerial locomotion.
CLASS 5. Everything analogous to this group not here detailed.

GROUP 8.—*Machinery and apparatus in civil and constructive engineering.*

CLASS 1. Machinery and apparatus in the construction of bridges, viaducts, causeways, pavements, and roadways in general.
CLASS 2. Apparatus and instruments for testing materials used in constructions.
CLASS 3. Everything not here detailed which is analogous to this group.

GROUP 9.—*Machinery and apparatus intended especially for agriculture.*

CLASS 1. Machinery and apparatus for the preparation of the ground.
CLASS 2. Machinery and apparatus for seeding and manuring.
CLASS 3. Machinery and apparatus for the harvesting and gathering of the crop.
CLASS 4. Machinery and apparatus for transplanting trees, felling timber, and protection of woods.
CLASS 5. Machinery and apparatus for threshing, cleaning, grinding, and bolting grains.
CLASS 6. Machinery and apparatus for cutting, cleaning, pressing, and preparing hay and preserving roots and tubercules.
CLASS 7. Machinery and apparatus for the manufacture of wines and alcoholic liquors.
CLASS 8. Machinery and apparatus for the manufacture of vegetable oils.
CLASS 9. Machinery and apparatus for the manufacture of sugar.
CLASS 10. Machinery and apparatus for the preparation of vegetable food.
CLASS 11. Machinery and apparatus for the steeping, separating, and other occupations relative to textile plants.
CLASS 12. Machinery and apparatus pertaining to the advancement and assistance of agriculture.
CLASS 13. Everything analogous to this group.

GROUP 10.—*Machinery and apparatus in the preparation of farm products.*

CLASS 1. Machinery and apparatus for the making of cheese.
CLASS 2. Machinery and apparatus for the preparation and tanning of hides and skins.
CLASS 3. Machinery for washing and cleaning wool.
CLASS 4. Machinery for baling wool and hair.
CLASS 5. Machinery for trying, purifying, and preserving lard and animal greases.
CLASS 6. Machinery for the elaboration of bones and horns.
CLASS 7. Machinery for the making of soap, candles, wax candles, &c.
CLASS 8. Machinery for the preparation and preservation of meats.
CLASS 9. All machinery having reference to this group.

GROUP 11.—*All machinery and apparatus for especial domestic or economic uses not included in the preceding groups.*

The sixth section, devoted to blooded stock, is divided into nine groups, to wit: 1st, horses; 2d, horned cattle; 3d, sheep; 4th, goats; 5th, llamos; 6th, deer; 7th, domestic fowls; 8th, dogs; 9th, animals not included in the previous groups.

As it is not probable, however, that there will be any disposition in the United States to exhibit in this section, I shall omit to give the several classes into which the groups are divided. They can be seen in the

catalogue, copies of which I inclose. It is required that European and North American exhibitors of machinery shall pay $5 per square meter for the space they may occupy in the building.

The amount of space allotted to the United States is 550 square meters, but the president of the "Club Industrial" assures me it will be increased should more be needed.

The premiums to be awarded by examining committees will consist of gold, silver, and bronze medals, and honorable mention.

The opportunity thus afforded of displaying to the people of South America the commanding position which the United States now occupy in the mechanic arts and the production of all kinds of machinery, ought not to be neglected. England and France have both signified their intention of being represented, and it would be a great mistake if our own country, which has manifested so much anxiety during the last few years to secure the trade of the South American States, should fail to take advantage of the occasion which the Argentine Republic now offers for the display of its mechanical genius.

I would add that the executive commission has also decided to admit free of duty all statuary, paintings, bronzes, and other objects of art and *vertu*, which may be forwarded from any of the countries of Europe or from the United States; not, however, for the purpose of competition, but simply for exhibition. For this purpose it is intended to open an art hall.

Requests and applications for space in the building will be received until the 15th of December, 1881, and objects will be received until the 15th of January, 1882. I think, however, that this time will be extended.

Any further information in regard to the exposition can be obtained from the president of the commission of the exposition, Buenos Ayres, or from "Mr. L. W. Morris, No. 60 Broadway, New York," who is the agent of the commission for the United States.

E. L. BAKER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buenos Ayres, August 27, 1881.

[Translation.]

BUENOS AYRES, *August* 27, 1881.

Mr. E. L. BAKER,
Consul of the United States:

Mr. CONSUL: I have the honor to send you the accompanying package containing the special regulations for the admission of machinery and blooded stock, forms of application for space, and labels for articles admitted to the Exposition:

The *minimum* space which the commission has reserved to the United States is 550 square meters; and, if necessary, this will be increased.

It is also pleasant for me to communicate to you the agreement by which works of art may be placed in the Exposition, but not for competition.

I improve this opportunity to offer you my respects.

ENRIQUE URIEN, *President.*

V. M. CURUTCHET, *Secretary.*

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS IN AUSTRIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, VIENNA, AUSTRIA.

According to the report of the statistical department of the Ministry of Commerce, recently published, the industrial schools in the Austrian

Empire are subsidized and controlled by the government. They comprise 75 schools, 172 teachers, and 4,495 scholars, embracing 21 different industries, the largest number being, however, in textiles, wood and glass industries, pottery, and musical instruments.

The various industries may be seen from the following table:

Character of school.	Number of schools.	Number of teachers.	Number of scholars.
Weaving	23	47	1,416
Lacemaking	5	7	362
Embroidery	2	3	95
Art embroidery	1	7	79
Woodturning	2	7	142
Wood carving	4	6	114
Wood industry	14	33	543
Marble sculpture	4	6	162
Glass	2	6	513
Pottery	4	10	363
Guns	1	5	13
Locks	1	1	30
Clocks	2	5	104
Iron and steel	1	5	10
Gold, silver, and bronze	2	6	127
Machinery	2	11	78
Shoemaking	1	1	16
Musical instruments	2	4	207
Children's toys	1	1	46
Painting	1	1	65
Total	75	172	4,495

Of the foregoing schools 7 are located in Vienna, having an aggregate of 25 teachers and 706 pupils devoted to lacemaking, embroidery, weaving, turning, and clockmaking. The other 68 are distributed in as many different localities over the whole of Austria proper, the textiles, however, principally in Moravia, ceramics in Bohemia, and wood industry in Tyrol.

As the demand for skilled labor increases every year, and as that nation which surpasses in the industrial arts will doubtless succeed in winning the foremost place in the world's commerce of manufactures, it behooves the people and government of the United States to take note of the competition preparing for them in European countries, and act accordingly.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Vienna, Austria, September 3, 1881.

PORT REGULATIONS OF BUENOS AYRES.

REPORT BY CONSUL BAKER.

The port regulations of Buenos Ayres are probably less understood by vessels coming from abroad than those of any other port in the world. They consist principally of decrees and orders, which have been added to and taken from, for the last half century, some contained in official blue books, and others still in manuscript, safely archived in the office of the captain of the port, the provisions of which seldom see the light, until some offending vessel, wholly ignorant of having transgressed any existing ordinance, is quietly notified that it has been fined for some delinquency. Upon arriving at a port, masters of merchant ships gen-

erally have a copy of the Port Regulations placed in their hands for their guidance, but here they are left to find them out the best way they can, and no excuse will avail them in case there is any infraction of the same. No small portion of a consul's time here is employed in correspondence or interviews with the port authorities in behalf of vessels of the nation which he represents, and in arranging their unitentional delinquencies and shortcomings.

It has occurred to me that in pursuance of the requirements of section 382 of the Consular Regulations, it might save shipmasters much trouble—searching through a wilderness of official rubbish—to translate and collate in convenient form such regulations as are most important to be known to vessels trading at this port, if indeed it can be called a port, since sea-going vessels are unable to approach nearer than three or four miles from the shore, while the large ocean steamers are compelled by the shallow water to anchor ten or twelve miles away.

ENTERING THE RIVER PLATE.

A vessel's troubles, however, begin almost immediately upon entering the River Plate, which, owing to ocean and river currents, shallow water, banks, and frequent storms, has in the past been a recognized graveyard for all classes of sea-going craft. Not only the coast from Cape St. Mary to Montevideo is lined with wrecks, but every bank in the river holds half buried in the sands the remains of vessels which met disaster in approaching Buenos Ayres. Though the water is thoroughly salt long before, the *embouchure* of the La Plata is generally fixed between East Point (some say Cape St. Mary) or the Uruguayan shore and Cape San Antonio on the Argentine coast.* Between these points it is 122 miles wide; between Espirillo and Point of Rocks it is 50 miles wide; and between Colonia and Buenos Ayres it is 20 miles wide. The length of the Rio de la Plata is only 165 miles in a straight line. Following the sinuosities of the coast, however, the distance from East Point to the mouth of the Uruguay River is 235 miles; and on the south shore, the distance from Cape San Antonio to the mouth of the Parana River is 216 miles. The superficial surface has been computed to be 9,245 square miles. The mean depth of the river opposite Cape San Antonio is 12 meters (41½ feet); opposite Point of Rocks it is 5 meters (17½ feet), and opposite Buenos Ayres it is 3½ meters (11½ feet). The bottom is generally of soft mud, more or less mixed with sand as it approaches the ocean. On the South Coast, which is low and flat, *tosca* extending out under the bottom of the river a distance of six miles, is found in large quantities. This is a formation of petrified marl or mud which has been exposed to sun and weather until it has become so exceedingly hard that it has the firmness, consistency, and all the qualities of stone, water having no effect in softening it. At the mouth of the river the sand is full of small shells.

LIGHT-HOUSES.

How the river was navigated by sea-going vessels before the days of light-houses is a mystery. The first light was not erected until 1792. It was near Flores Island on the hulk of the Spanish man-of-war "Loreto," which went ashore there. It was subsequently (1798) transferred to the Cerro of Montevideo. Within the last few years the light-service of the River Plate has been considerably improved. There are now fourteen lights, nine on shore and five floating. The former are

*Navigacion del Rio de la Plata, pp. 17, 18.

respectively located at East Point, St. Mary's Cape, Flores Island, the Cerro at Montevideo, Punta Brava, Colonia, Farallon, Point San Ignacio, and Buenos Ayres custom-house. The latter are respectively located at the English Bank, Point Indio, Chico Bank, Panela Rock, and the Buenos Ayres guard-ship or pontoon. The following is the official description* of these several lights:

1. *St. Mary's Light.*—White light, revolving and flashing every minute; height, 135 feet above the level of the sea. The capacity of the light is 16 miles, but in clear weather it can be seen a distance of 18 to 20 miles. Cape St. Mary, at the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, is readily recognized by the two little islands near it, named "Palorna and "Tuna." Latitude, 34° 40′ 30″ south; longitude, 45° 57′ 10″ west from the meridian of San Fernando.

2. *East Point Light.*—This is a fixed white light on the point of Maldovado, 152 feet above the level of the sea; visible 14 miles. Latitude, 34° 58′ south; longitude, 48° 38′ west from Cadiz.

3. *Point Ignacio Light.*—A white fixed light, situated on San Ignacio Point. It bears SW. ¼ W. with the island of Lobos, distance 16 miles; and N. 52° E. with Cape St. Mary, distance 27 miles. Height above the level of the sea, 107 feet. Visible 15 miles in clear, fair weather. Latitude, 34° 50′ west; longitude, 54° 42′ west from Greenwich.

4. *Flores Light.*—This is a revolving light, one revolution every minute, on Flores Island. Height, 104 feet. Visible at a distance of 12 miles in clear weather. Latitude, 34° 57′; longitude, 49° 37′ 40″ west.

5. *English Bank Light.*—This is a floating light; the pontoon is anchored in 7 fathoms of water on the north end of the bank. The light is fixed, and visible 10 miles. Latitude, 35° 06′ south; longitude, 49° 36′ west.

6. *Panela Light.*—A floating light; the pontoon is anchored in 5 fathoms of water; distant 7 miles west southwest from Point Yerguas, and 1 mile south of Panela Rock. A white light; visible 8 miles. Latitude, 34° 56′ south; longitude, 30° 07′ west.

7. *Punta Brava Light.*—This is a fixed white light at the entrance of the roads of Montevideo on the reef near the point called "Punta Brava," bearing W. ¼ SW. 12 miles distant, and with the light on the "Cerro" bearing W. 15° N., distant 8 miles. Visible 10 miles in clear weather. Height, 73 feet above the level of the sea. Latitude, 34° 67′ south; longitude, 56° 08′ west of Greenwich.

8. *Cerro of Montevideo Light.*—This is a revolving light, three revolutions every three minutes; 486 feet above the level of the sea. Visible 25 miles. Latitude, 34° 53′ 48″ south; longitude, 49° 56′ 42″ west.

9. *Point Indio Light.*—This is a floating fixed white light, the light-ship being anchored in 4½ fathoms water. Height of light, 22 feet; visible in clear weather 11 miles; bearing from Point Indio NE. ¼ N., 8 miles distant. Latitude, 35° 10′ south; longitude, 57° 5′ west.

10. *Chico Bank Light.*—A floating fixed white light; the light-ship is anchored in 4½ fathoms water; 12 feet high; visible in clear weather 8 miles. Bearing from northeast point of Chico Bank north, 1 mile distant. Latitude, 34° 48′ south; longitude, 57° 30′ west.

11. *Farallon light.*—A white fixed light on the island of Farallon, 4 miles distant from Colonia, bearing west southwest with the island of Hornos, 5 miles distant. Magnetic flashes; 86 feet above the level of the water; visible 13 miles in clear weather. Latitude, 34° 29′ south; longitude, 57° 57′ west from Greenwich.

* Digesto Argentino de Marina, page 397 et seq.

12. *Colonia Light.*—A white light, revolving three times every three minutes; height, 110 feet above the level of the sea. Visible 10 miles. Latitude, 34° 28′ south; longitude, 51° 31′ west.

13. *Buenos Ayres Roads Light.*—A fixed red light on a three-masted pontoon, painted black, 3½ miles from the custom-house and 40 miles N. 74° W. of the floating light on Chico Bank. Anchored in 16 feet water; visible 6 or 7 miles.

14. *Buenos Ayres Port Light.*—It is situated on the tower of the custom-house, a fixed white light.

URUGUAYAN LIGHT DUES.

Until last year, all vessels entering the river bound to Argentine ports were required to pay dues for all lights on the Uruguayan coast, even though they did not touch at any point on that side of the river, the government of Uruguay having an agent in Buenos Ayers for their collection; and no vessel would be dispatched by the Argentine Government until they were liquidated. But the injustice, not to say illegality, of this requirement attracted the attention of the foreign consuls residing here, and a decree was finally promulgated abolishing their payment altogether. They are only paid now by vessels entering the ports of Uruguay.

PILOT BOATS.

Vessels entering the river from the north generally try to make St. Mary's Light; but great care should be taken by them in approaching the coast, since the currents which set in towards the shore have in thick weather carried many a merchant vessel and ocean steamer to their destruction. Between this light and that of East Point, pilot boats are constantly cruising. They may be recognized by a white flag with a blue border and the initials of the pilot in the center; but, as there is a regular tariff of charges, captains are cautioned against extortion by these pilots in the adjustment of their pilotage. All vessels, however, should take a pilot, and especially those drawing more than five meters (18 feet) of water, since there are places in the channel to Buenos Ayres which are exceedingly narrow and tortuous, particularly in the neighborhood of the southeast extremity of the "Ortiz" bank. It should be borne in mind, moreover, that the banks and bars suffer continual changes from inside currents and outside storms, and that only pilots who have continually to make soundings and examine the channels are able to know these thoroughly. Vessels of less draft than 2½ fathoms are almost always able to pass over the "Ortiz" bank through its whole extent, but vessels of greater draft must pass by the channels which the banks form with the coast. It is convenient, also, to remember, in the passage, that when the lead reveals soft mud the vessel is in the right place; but when the mud is mixed with sand, that the vessel is near some bank, and especially when the sand is abundant or the bottom is hard. The precaution should be taken to cast anchor the moment that there is any doubt in regard to the exact position of the vessel, especially if the weather be threatening.

SAILING DIRECTIONS TO BUENOS AYRES.

There are three channels from Montevideo to Buenos Ayres—the north, the south, and the middle. The first is formed by the north shore of the river Plate and the "Ortiz" bank, but it is too shallow for any but vessels drawing not more than four fathoms. The second or south channel

is comprised between the south shore of the river Plate and Chico Bank, and is able to admit vessels drawing 16½ feet of water. The third or middle channel, which is between "Ortiz" and Chico Banks, is the deepest and consequently the most usual. According to the most approved sailing directions,* the first thing to be done, after leaving or passing Montevedio, is to sight the light-ship off Point Indio. The direct bearing is WSW. 5° W., but the currents in the river will render it necessary to change the course a little. This light is distant from the Cerro of Montevedio 35 miles. Here generally a Buenos Ayres pilot is taken on board. Leaving this pontoon behind, the vessel should then take a northwest course in order to pass between New Bank and that which skirts the Argentine coast. The depth of water increases from 7 meters to 8 or 10 (29 to 36 feet), and then very gradually diminishes. If the soundings remain the same, it is a sign that the currents are taking the vessel towards the Chico Bank, in which case it will be necessary to change the ship's course towards the north to find deeper water (28 to 39 feet). This found, the vessel should once more proceed on a northwest course until it makes the floating light on Chico Bank. Passing this, the soundings will now mark from 6 to 9 meters (23 to 35 feet), with a mud bottom, and the depth will continue to decrease towards the roads of Buenos Ayres. The rocks on the north part of Chico Bank are very dangerous, and great care should be taken with the soundings. Avoiding these, the ship has but little difficulty in making the outer roads of Buenos Ayres. The depth of water in the channel varies from 23 to 35 feet.

ROADSTEADS OF BUENOS AYRES.

The port of Buenos Ayres is really nothing more than the river in front of the city. It is divided into two anchorages, called the outer and the inner roads, separated from each other by what is known as the "City Bank." The outer roads, 8 miles distant from the shore, consist of a channel about a mile wide and 3 or 4 miles long, northwest by southeast, and lying between the "City Bank" and that of Los Palmas. It is here that merchant vessels generally anchor. At the east end, however, there is a bar which prevents the passage of vessels drawing more than 20 feet, so that large ocean steamers are obliged to remain outside—a distance of 12 to 14 miles from the shore.

The inner roads are immediately in front of the city, where vessels of not more than 12 feet draft may anchor. Here is found the smaller river steamers and the fleet of small craft which trade up the Parana and Uruguay rivers.

None of these anchorages are of the best quality, owing to the fact that the bottom is too soft; and with winds from the northeast ships readily drag their anchors. During storms from that direction the damages done by vessels fouling each other, and even by being driven into the shore, are sometimes very considerable. When these storms set in, two anchors will sometimes not suffice to hold the ship.

ARGENTINE LIGHT DUES.

The following are the provisions of the law† regulating the collection of light dues, to wit:

1. All vessels coming from outside the capes, including regular packets, shall pay light dues at the rate of 6 cents per ton registered.

* Navigacion del Rio de la Plata, page 249.

† Ley estableciendo el derecho de faros. Setiembre 29 de 1875.

2. Coasting vessels, or those navigating within the capes, including also regular packets, of more than 20 tons register, shall pay light dues for each voyage or trip from the City Roads, or from the Boca del Rio-Chuelo, or from the port of the "Tigre" at the rate of 1 cent per ton registered.

3. Coasting vessels of less than 20 and greater than 5 tons shall pay 20 cents for each trip.

4. Shore vessels, lighters, and beach boats shall pay as follows:

	Per month.
Vessels of 5 to 20 tons	$0 30
Vessels of 21 to 50 tons	50
Vessels of 51 to 100 tons	70
Vessels of 101 to 200 tons	1 00
Vessels of 201 to 300 tons	1 50
Vessels of 301 tons and over	2 00

5. No dues are collected from vessels of less than 5 tons register.

6. Vessels arriving and departing in ballast shall pay one-half the above tariff.

7. Vessels putting in, in distress, are exempt from the payment of light dues provided they neither discharge nor receive cargo.

8. Until a convention shall be made with the Urtguayan Government in regard to the light-house service of the river Plate, the captain of the port shall not co-operate in the collection of any light dues which are not authorized by the laws of the Argentine Republic.

ARGENTINE PILOTAGE. *

1. Sea-going vessels from foreign ports passing up the river Plate directly to Argentine ports, are not obliged to take a pilot; but in order to avoid accidents or injuries in the channels or ports, through ignorance, in case they do not take a pilot, they are required to pay to the state, upon entering, one-half the established rate.

2. Only pilots licensed by the Argentine Republic are allowed to bring vessels into the Argentine ports.

3. Argentine pilots may cruise anywhere from the meridian of the capes of Saint Mary and Saint Antonio to any port, bay, or channel within the river Plate or on the Argentine coast of the Atlantic ocean; also, in the river Parana to Rosario and in the river Uruguay to Conception.

TARIFF FOR PILOTAGE.

The following is the established tariff† for pilotage, to wit:

From the meridian of the capes to Buenos Ayres, Lujan, Ensenada, or Magdalena, and vice versa.

Vessels of 120 to 300 tons	$70 00
Vessels of 301 to 500 tons	90 00
Vessels of 501 to 1,000 tons	110 00
Vessels of 1,001 to 1,500 tons	130 00

From Montevideo, Point Indio, Santa Lucia, Colonia, and intermediate points, and vice versa.

Vessels of 120 to 300 tons	$40 00
Vessels of 301 to 500 tons	50 00
Vessels of 501 to 1,000 tons	60 00
Vessels of 1,001 to 1,500 tons	70 00

* Decreto reglementando el ejercicio de practicos, Novembre 7 de 1877.
† Tarifa de Practicos Lemanes, aprobada en 2 de Enero de 1878.

From the meridian of the capes to Rosario, San Nicolas, San Pedro, Compana, Uruguay or Gualequaychú, and intermediate ports, and vice versa.

Vessels of 120 to 300 tons	$80 00
Vessels of 301 to 500 tons	100 00
Vessels of 501 to 1,000 tons	130 00
Vessels of 1,001 to 1,500 tons	150 00

From Montevideo, Point Indio, Santa Lucia, Colonia, and intermediate ports to the last-named ports, and vice versa.

Vessels of 130 to 300 tons	$60 00
Vessels of 301 to 500 tons	80 00
Vessels of 501 to 1,000 tons	100 00
Vessels of 1,001 to 1,500 tons	110 00

Port pilotage.

For pilotage into the roads, and *vice versa*, or for changing a vessel's anchorage in the balize or canal	$14 00
For pilotage from outside the bar of the roads	28 00
For each day passed in quarantine over 48 hours	4 00

REGULATIONS OF THE PORT.

The regulations* for vessels at anchor in the port of Buenos Ayres embrace quite a volume of ordinances. The following are the most important to be known:

1. The port pilots are required to take charge of vessels upon their arrival and anchor them in the roads, with 45 fathoms of chain to each anchor, from the capstan, and give notice to the captain that he must constantly keep his chains clear and maintain buoys to each anchor.

2. The port pilots are required to keep an oversight of the vessels they may have piloted, and to require that the captains shall reanchor them in their places, should they have dragged their anchors. Should the captains refuse to do this, they are to be reported to the captain of the port.

3. Every pilot shall be responsible for all damages occasioned by his own negligence or incapacity, upon proof of which he shall have his license taken from him.

4. Every vessel which enters the balize is required to take a pilot to moor it in the anchorage, under a penalty of double pilotage, to be paid to the captain of the port.

5. Every vessel at anchor in the outer roads must constantly have on board at least two-thirds of its crew; and in case of not so having them, shall be responsible for all damages which may ensue, except in "fuerza major."

6. Every captain of a vessel is obliged to see that his anchors are properly buoyed, in default of which he shall pay a fine of $16 gold.

7. The captain of every vessel which has dragged its anchors or changed its anchorage, must report the same to the captain of the port, in order that the port pilot which moored the vessel may anchor her anew.

8. Whenever a storm threatens, every vessel in the port must display a light at least 8 inches in diameter, under a penalty of $50 gold fine.

9. All differences and disputes between pilots and shipmasters shall be settled by the proper authority.

10. Every merchant vessel anchored in the ports of the republic shall constantly, during the night, maintain a clear light in the proper place

* Guia political del Navegante en Aguas Argentinas, 1875.

of not less than 8 inches in diameter, in default of which it shall pay a fine of $4 gold for each infraction, and be responsible for all resulting damages.

SANITARY VISITS.*

1. Every merchant vessel entering a port of the republic shall pay a tax of 2 cents per ton registered for the sanitary visit.
2. All vessels which arrive from infected ports, or which do not present a bill of health, shall pay a sanitary tax of double the above amount.
3. Vessels entering in ballast, or without passengers, shall pay one-half the above tax for sanitary visit.
4. Every merchant vessel from a foreign port, upon entering at any port in the republic, shall present a certificate from the captain of the port, or sub-delegate, to the officer of the custom-house, showing if the vessel has a bill of health, if it has passengers on board, and if the port it comes from is infected or not, in order that the custom-house may settle with said vessel the proper duties for the sanitary visit.
5. No cargo will be permitted to be discharged or received, nor will any vessels be dispatched, until the duties for its sanitary visit are paid.

QUARANTINE REGULATIONS.

1. Every sea-going vessel arriving at any port of the republic without a bill of health or with a foul or suspected bill of health shall be declared in quarantine; and so, also, when there are circumstances which place it in the condition of having a foul bill, as for instance, sickness on board, a death during the voyage from any disease, or a cargo in a state of putrefaction or decomposition.
2. There shall be two kinds of quarantine, one of observation and one of rigor. The first shall continue three days, commencing from the time the master is notified, and shall extend to the vessel, to the passengers, and to everything on board.
3. The quarantine of observation shall be performed at such anchorage as the port authorities may designate, remote from the roads and separated from as many vessels as possible.
4. The quarantine of observation shall be limited to a watch on the vessel, its crew and passengers; and during its continuance neither the discharge of merchandise nor communication with other vessels in the port will be permitted.
5. The quarantine of rigor will begin from the time the vessel enters the quarantine station, or is placed "in *lazaretto*"; and is to last 15 days for persons, 20 days for the vessel, and 30 days for the cargo.
6. Quarantines of rigor can only be accomplished in a port with a *lazaretto;* and the disembarkation of the passengers and the fumigation and disinfection of the vessel are obligatory; with such other measures as the public health board may direct.
7. Every vessel proceeding from an infected port or with a foul bill of health, which may have accomplished its quarantine at an intermediate port, upon presenting proof of this fact will be admitted to free pratique, provided in the interval there has been no occurrence on board warranting a further quarantine.
8. Every vessel, even with a clean bill of health, whose sanitary conditions are bad or compromising to the public health, shall be declared to be in the same condition as though they had a foul bill, and shall go through the usual quarantine regimen.

* Reglamento Sanitorio, Junio 18 de 1870.

9. Every master of a vessel who disobeys the regulations and orders which he may receive in regard to quarantine shall be held guilty of a grave crime and be punished accordingly.

CUSTOM-HOUSE REGULATIONS.

The ordinances of the custom-house * are embraced in a volume of several hundred pages. The most important of those which concern merchant vessels are the following. The numbering of the paragraphs is my own:

1. The navigation of the rivers of the nation are free to all flags, subject only to the regulations which the national authority may prescribe.

2. No vessel is permitted to navigate between any port of the nation and a foreign port without having on board (1) the ship's register; (2) official clearance of the vessel; (3) list of the crew; (4) invoice from the custom-house of the port from which the vessel sailed, verified and vised according to law; (5) bills of lading of the cargo on board; (6) manifest of the cargo in detail.

3. As soon as a vessel enters the port, the adjutant or sub-delegate of the port will at once pay an official visit, delivering to the master a copy of the "Regulations of the Custom-House," and asking for the correspondence and a list of the passengers which she brings. These regulations are sixteen in number, printed in five columns, respectively, in the Spanish, French, English, Italian, and German languages.

4. The master of the vessel must at once present a general and exact manifest of the cargo, vised by the Argentine consul of the port from which he sailed, making also a separate list in any language of the packages which the passengers carry with them, as also of the small parcels or samples not put down in the manifest of the cargo. He must furthermore deliver a statement of his remaining stores and provisions on board.

5. If the vessel proceeds from a port where there is no Argentine consul, and the master does not have a general invoice of her cargo drawn up by the custom-house authorities of her port of departure, then the master must make up such manifest and remit it to the visiting officer within eight hours. In this manifest must be included cargo, parcels, samples, and remaining provisions.

6. It is not necessary to manifest the ship's apparel or the clothing of passengers.

7. If the master is not able to present a complete manifest within the prescribed time, he may substitute the original bills of lading, under the receipt of the custom-house official, accompanying them with a list of such cargo as is not included in them and of the provisions on board.

8. Having thus completed a general manifest of his ship, the master shall note at the foot of it that he has received a copy of the ordinances of the custom-house and knows their contents; and he and the visiting officer shall sign the same.

9. The visiting officer then seals up the documents in an envelope addressed to the inspector of the custom-house, and delivers it to the master to be handed by him to the inspector, leaving a guard on board to prevent the landing or transshipment of anything until permission shall be received, excepting samples, small parcels, and luggage, free of duty.

10. Neither the master nor any of the crew, under a penalty of $50, is allowed to come on shore until the manifest has been prepared in the manner mentioned; and the first time he comes he must bring with him the said document, to be delivered, closed and sealed, as he received it.

* Las ordenanzas de aduana.

11. Should the master of a vessel refuse to present a general manifest of his cargo, he will be obliged to leave the port at once.

12. Within forty-eight hours after delivering, said manifest to the custom-house officer on shore, any error in the document or in the translation may be corrected.

13. The master of every ship arriving from a foreign port must present himself at the custom-house within three days after his arrival, unless prevented by "fuerz a mayor."

14. If the master of a vessel, on the occasion of the official visit, fails to present the manifest of the consul or of the custom-house of the port from which he proceeded, he will be subject to a fine of $50, in favor of the fiscal.

15. If the master discharges or transships other cargo or goods than those on his manifest, without permission, the same shall be confiscated in favor of the discoverer or informer, the consent of the guard not serving to excuse him from this penalty.

16. After the expiration of forty-eight hours allowed for the correction of errors in the manifest, such errors will be punished with the confiscation of all that has been omitted, to go to the informer, and a fine of $20, to go to the fiscal.

17. When a master brings on shore articles belonging to the stores of his vessel without having previously obtained a corresponding permit from the custom-house, the same shall be confiscated in favor of the person who discovers and apprehends them. If a lighterman has interfered in the operation, he also shall suffer a fine equal to the value of the goods, to be adjudicated also to the person who makes the discovery.

18. If a master refuses to exhibit his bills of lading, when required by the authorities, he will be amenable to a fine of $250 in favor of the fiscal.

19. If a master does not bring with him a manifest of his cargo from the port of shipment, or is without the required bills of lading, unless he can prove that those documents were lost by shipwreck or other accidents of the sea, besides the fine of $250 there will be exacted from him 80 cents for every ton of cargo which are necessary to the complete loading of the vessel; and the cargo which is on board shall be deposited in the fiscal stores until the legal duties are satisfied.

20. If the master, in exhibiting his manifast, keeps back any of his bills of lading, if the packages are not included in the manifest, he shall pay a fine equal to the value of the packages; if the packages are on the manifest, he shall pay one-half their value, to be adjusted at the custom-house.

21. If upon the discharge of the vessel the number of packages are short, the master will be fined $20 for each package less than the number called for by the manifest.

22. If upon making the visit, after the vessel has completed her discharge, there is found any cargo which was not manifested, the master must pay the excess.

23. Whatever articles remain on board at the time of the clearing of the vessel, without permission of the custom-house, will be confiscated if they do not appear on the manifest of the vessel, and the master will be fined to the amount of their value. If they appear on the manifest, he shall pay the duties on them the same as though they had been landed.

[1] I could extend this *résumé* of these regulations of the custom-house, but the above are the most important, which it is necessary that our American ship-masters should be acquainted with. The formalities for

discharging and loading can be learned by them through the houses to whom they may be consigned.

As the discharge of the cargoes of sea-going vessels lying in the roads is done by means of lighters, and can be accomplished only during good weather, it frequently happens that vessels are delayed here for many weeks. The expenses attendant are very great; in many cases the cost of discharging the cargo is more than the entire freight from the port of shipment.

THE RIOCHUELO PORT.

To obviate the above-mentioned expenses the government is now engaged in opening a channel from the outer roads to the Riochuelo, a little river, very similar in size and appearance to the Chicago River, emptying into the La Plata, just south of the city. A large amount of dredging has already been accomplished, and the channel now readily admits vessels drawing not more than 17 feet of water. During the last year a large number of American vessels with lumber cargoes have discharged at this point, and more would do so if the charges were more moderate. The tariff* exacted from vessels is as follows:

MOLE DUES.

	Per ton.
1. Vessels from 5 to 100 tons register, per day	$0 04
Vessels from 101 and upwards register, per day	05

PORT DUES.

2. Sailing vessels of 10 to 50 tons register	$0 10
Sailing vessels of 51 to 100 tons register	15
Sailing vessels of 101 to 150 tons register	30
Sailing vessels of 151 and upwards register	60
Lighters and shore vessels	10

3. Steamers shall pay, according to their tonnage, one-half the above charges.

4. Sailing-vessels, which enter and clear in ballast, shall pay, according to their tonnage, one-half the above port dues.

The intention of the government is to deepen the channel of the Riochuelo and still further dredge that which leads to the outer roads, until sea-going vessels and ocean steamers of the largest capacity can at all times pass in and discharge their cargoes alongside of wharves and warehouses to be constructed in connection with these public works. This will be accomplished probably during the next ten years, and will give Beunos Ayres, what for three hundred years she has been without, a safe and reliable harbor.

E. L. BAKER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buenos Ayres, August 23, 1881.

DUTIES AND PORT CHARGES IN THE BAHAMAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL M'LAIN, OF NASSAU, NEW PROVIDENCE.

As a general answer to many letters of inquiry received at this consulate, and for the information of any traders who may be thinking of

* Decreto del 18 de Noviembre de 1878.

establishing commercial relations with this colony, as well as for the convenience of those already engaged in business with the Bahamas, I beg leave to submit a statement of port charges, duties, &c., which obtain in these islands at present.

Pilotage.—For vessels drawing not to exceed 6 feet, 12*s.* 6*d.* sterling; for each additional foot about 4*s.* extra up to 15 feet; drawing 15½ feet, £3 10*s.*; 16 feet, £4; 17 feet, £5; 18 feet, £5 10*s.* An additional fee of £2 each on steamers.

Light dues.—Three pence per ton, except on war ships, mail-boats, yachts, and vessels engaged in turtling, fishing, and sponging, and vessels bringing in materials for colonial factories.

Tonnage dues—inward.—On every vessel arriving with cargo to be discharged within the colony, and exceeding in measurement or weight one-half of the tonnage of the vessel, 1*s.* sterling for each and every ton of the proper measurement of each vessel.

On every vessel arriving wholly or partly laden, and from which any portion of the cargo, not exceeding in measurement or weight one-half of the tonnage of the vessel, is intended to be discharged within the colony, 1*d.* for each and every ton of the ascertained tonnage of such vessel, and 1*s.* per ton measurement or weight of the goods landed from such vessel.

On every vessel arriving in ballast, or with cargo not to be discharged here, 1*d.* for each ton of the measurement of the vessel.

All vessels of war, and ships carrying mails, pleasuring, or engaged in turtling, sponging, and fishing are exempted.

Tonnage dues—outward.—On every vessel clearing with outward cargo laden within the colony, other than salt or fruit, exceeding one-half of the tonnage of the vessel, 1*s.* for each ton of the vessel. On every vessel clearing with outward cargo laden within the colony, other than salt or fruit, not exceeding in measurement or weight one-half of the tonnage of the vessel, and whether any portion of the inward cargo is still on board or not, 1*d.* for each ton of such vessel, and 1*s.* per ton measurement or weight of the goods so shipped or exported.

On every vessel clearing in ballast, or with salt or fruit, or salt and fruit, and with or without any portion of her inward cargo on board, 1*d.* for each ton of the said vessel. Exemptions same as before.

In measurement of goods eight flour barrels or 40 cubic feet shall make a ton, and other articles in like proportion, or by the ton weight in such articles as usually charged for by weight. The word "fruit" does not include preserved fruits. Vessels arriving with cargo and departing with the same without taking additional cargo pay only inward tonnage. Tonnage dues are not charged on vessels bringing entire cargo for use of factories in the colony, nor on those taking away entire cargo of preserved fruits from the factories. Vessels bringing entire cargoes of coal are also exempted.

Registry fee.—A registry fee of 1*s.* per ton is charged on all vessels obtaining a register, except on those built in the Bahamas or previously registered in Nassau.

Warehouse charges.—Ten shillings sterling per £100 is charged on the value of all goods imported and stored in a bonded warehouse.

Auction duty.—A tax of 5 per cent. is charged on the proceeds of sale at public auction of articles brought into the colony otherwise than by regular importation and not liable to import duty.

Pierage charges.—The fees on vessels discharging or loading cargoes at the wharves, are as follows, viz: On vessels not exceeding 60 tons, 8*s.* sterling per day; for each additional 10 tons 2*s.* extra per day, to 100

tons; for 150 tons, 18*s.* per day; not exceeding 200 tons, £1 per day; not exceeding 300 tons, £1 5*s.* per day; on every ton above 300, 1*d.* extra per day.

Stamp duties.—On bills of lading for goods shipped to foreign ports, 4*d.*; survey of vessels or goods, 5*s.* sterling; report of surveyors, 5*s.*; hypothecation bond on ship or cargo, 10*s.* if under £100, and for each additional £100 or fraction, 4*s.*; ship's protest extended, 10*s.* sterling; export and import entry, 1*d.* each; clearance, 6*d.*; receipts, 1*d.*

Duties on imports.—Alcohol, per gallon, 4*s.*; ale and porter in wood, per gallon, 6*d.*, in bottles, per dozen quarts, 1*s.*; apples, per barrel, 2*s.* 6*d.*; beans and pease, per bushel, 3*d.*; biscuit and bread, fancy, per 100 pounds, 4*s.*, same, common, per barrel, 2*s.*; brandy, per gallon, 9*s.*; butter, per pound, 2*d.*; calves, each, 6*s.*; candles, tallow, per 100 pounds, 6*s.*, other kinds, 11*s.* per 100 pounds; cattle, each, 10*s.*; cheese, per 100 pounds, 10*s.*; cider, 20 per cent. ad valorem; cigars, 15 per cent. ad valorem and 8*s.* per 1,000; coffee, per cwt., 8*s.*; colts, each, £1; copper and products, per 100 pounds, 7*s.* 6*d.*; corn, per bushel, 3*d.*; cornmeal and hominy, per barrel, 2*s.*; currants, figs, and rasins, per cwt., 8*s.*; dogs, each, 10*s.*; fish, dried or salted, per cwt., 2*s.* 6*d.*; other fish, per barrel, 4*s.* 6*d.*; flour, per barrel, 5*s.*; rye flour, 2*s.*; gin, whisky, and other spirits not enumerated herein, per gallon, 3*s.* 9*d.*; gunpowder, per pound, 6*d.*; hay, per cwt., 1*s.*; honey and sirup, per gallon, 2*d.*; horses, each, £1; materials of vessels, 20 per cent. ad valorem; lard, per pound, 1*d.*; lumber, per M., 10*s.*; meat, poultry, and game, fresh on ice, per cwt., 6*s.*; molasses, per gallon, 2½*d.*; mules and asses, 10*s.* each; iron nails, per cwt., 3*s.*; oats and bran, per bushel, 3*d.*; oils—kerosine, linseed, and other kinds not enumerated except essential oils, per gallon, 7½*d.*; oils—olive, sperm, lard, and naphtha, and other burning fluids, per gallon, 1*s.*; pitch, tar, and rosin, per barrel, 1*s.* 3*d.*; potatoes and other vegetables, per barrel, 1*s.*; prunes, per cwt., 10*s.*; rice, per cwt., 2*s.*; rum, stronger than 18 per bubble, per gallon, 4*s.* 6*d.*; 18 and not weaker than 24, per gallon, 3*s.* 9*d.*; weaker than 24, per gallon, 3*s.*; sheep, each, 2*s.*; shingles, cypress, per M., 2*s.* 6*d.*, other than cypress, 2*s.*; soap, common, per cwt., 5*s.*; sugar, unrefined, per cwt., 5*s.* 6*d.*, white, clayed, 10*s.*, refined, 12*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; swine, per cwt., 2*s.* 6*d.*; tallow, per cwt., 3*s.*; tea, per pound, 1*s.*; tobacco, manufactured, per cwt., £1 10*s.*, unmanufactured, 11*s.* 3*d.*; turpentine, per barrel, 1*s.* 3*d.*; wines of all kind, 20 per cent. ad valorem and 2*s.* per gallon; all other articles not enumerated or exempted, 20 per cent. ad valorem.

Articles free of import duty (imported for use of colony or the governor.)—Seeds and trees for planting, bullion, cocoa-nuts, coin (except Mexican and South American dollars, on which is a duty of 12 per cent. ad valorem), old copper, cotton, wool, dye stuffs, divi-divi, flax, hemp, ice, old iron, lignum vitæ, mahogany, manures, maps, ores, oakum, passengers' baggage, philosophical instruments, printed books and pamphlets, raw hides, specimens of natural history, steam machines and engines, iron rails and sleepers intended for use here, boilers and mills, stills for use in colony, cotton-gins, tortoise shell, tow, turtle and fresh fish, wax and woods. All articles used in the preserving and packing of colonial fruits are also exempted.

Export duties.—On guano or cave c urth, 2*s.* per ton; on all articles not hereafter exempted which have been imported, and upon which only warehouse duty and auction tax have been paid, 1½ per cent. ad valorem.

Articles free of export duty.—Cargo of any vessel which may arrive in distress; exports by the colonial government, by naval and army offi-

cers and by the governor; baggage, turtle, woods; old iron, copper, and brass; specie, old rags, and junk.

Although a British dependency, no discriminations are made in favor of the mother country, English ships and cargoes being subject to the same charges and duties as the vessels of other countries. A late governor sought earnestly to induce the people to substitute direct taxes to such an extent as would justify a large reduction of import duties, his idea being that with Nassau as a free port the Bahamas would be more prosperous; but the proposed policy of taxation met with little favor.

Whilst the colonists, generally speaking, are theoretically in favor of free trade, the necessity of raising a substantial revenue for colonial purposes compels them to maintain a respectable tariff system which will continue for many years to come, unless certain conditions should arise which, just now, are scarcely to be considered as among the probabilities.

THOMAS J. McLAIN, JR.,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nassau, N. P., Bahamas, August 20, 1881.

ADDITIONAL DUTIES ON IMPORTS INTO MEXICO.

REPORT BY CONSUL TURNER, OF LA PAZ.

Referring to my dispatch No. 181, dated July 25, 1881, and the mention therein made of the import duty imposed upon lumber, machinery, and all other articles formerly admitted free, and the additional duty upon all importations, I have to say that a careful consideration of the new duties imposed convinces me that the effect upon trade will be more disastrous than I had at first supposed it would be.

The duty upon machinery, although comparatively light, will be considered by Americans engaged in mining and other enterprises in Mexico, as indicating a disposition on the part of the Mexican Government to discourage such enterprises, and the duty on lumber nearly amounts to prohibition.

The duty on rough lumber will amount to from 100 to 150 per cent. upon the invoice value, and it must be invoiced by weight. At least one-half the lumber imported is brought on the deck of vessels, and, being constantly wet on the passage, its weight is greatly increased on on the voyage.

Suppose that the lumber is invoiced correctly at the port of shipment, when it arrives at the port of discharge its weight will far exceed the invoiced weight, and then, under the present law, will come fines, double and triple duties, and even imprisonment for the innocent consignee. Under these circumstances it is doubtful if any one will dare to import lumber into Mexico after the 1st of November next, when this law goes into effect.

What is the motive of the Mexican Government in imposing such an extraordinary duty on lumber? It cannot be to protect Mexican industries, for Mexico does not contain within its limits any wood that can take the place of the redwood and pine of California and Oregon, and it cannot be for the purpose of raising a revenue, for, if that were the

the motive a moderate duty would have been imposed and not an enormous one under restrictions and penalties which may prevent the importation altogether.

I conceive that the real motive is to prevent trade with the United States, and to discourage mining and other enterprises in Mexico by Americans. Whoever will take the trouble to examine the Mexican tariff will find that prohibitory duties are imposed upon almost every article which was formerly imported, exclusively or generally, from the United States, and on these facts I base my opinion.

Besides these new duties another decree has been published which, although dated three days anterior to the one already mentioned, was not published here until the 10th instant. This decree imposes another additional duty of 2 per cent. upon all imports, 5 cents per ton additional tonnage duty on all sail vessels bringing merchandise, and a new duty of 5 cents per ton on steamers, sail vessels in ballast, and vessels laden with coals, all of which were heretofore exempted from tonnage duties.

All these additional duties will have little or no effect upon importations from Europe. Those who purchase in Europe, importing as they do in large quantities and by cargoes, will continue to do in the future as they have done in the past, make special contracts for the admission of their goods with the "minister of hacienda" and the collector of the port of entry; but those who purchase in the United States, generally purchasing in small lots, will pay full duties, and on them the burden of those additional duties will fall. Every merchant on this western coast of Mexico understands that full duties must be paid on all goods purchased in the United States, while the same class of goods purchased in Europe will pay from 25 to 40 per cent. less, and notwithstanding all this they still purchase a large amount of goods in the United States. The result of a state of affairs which would admit American goods into Mexico upon equal terms with European goods can easily be imagined.

DAVID TURNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
La Paz, August 25, 1881.

PROPOSED PROTECTIVE DUTIES ON IMPORTS IN AUSTRIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER.

At the present moment there is being carried on in this empire a vigorous discussion in regard to the protection of home industries by means of increased entry duties.

In the early part of the year the chambers of commerce had prepared and sent to the largest manufacturers of the country, soliciting exhaustive replies, long lists of interrogatories relative to the condition of trade and the effect of foreign competition.

The general result of the investigation and discussion of the question by the press, industrial societies, and chambers of commerce warrant us in expecting in the early future, probably at the next session of the Reichsrath, an effort on the part of manufacturers to have their interests further protected by increasing the duties on certain classes of importations, in order to protect their domestic industries.

Recently the subject has been discussed in the chamber of commerce

for Lower Austria, in Vienna, where, according to the report based on statistical information, it was shown that for 1880 the importation of pig and scrap iron amounted to 56,000 tons, being one-sixth of the domestic production, which was claimed to be excessive and dangerous to the home interests, to obviate which an increase of *seventy kreutzers* was askedto be added to the present duty of fifty kreutzers per 100 kilograms.

A similar condition in regard to nearly all metal products and manufactures including machinery, locomotives, and wagons, was demonstrated, and a similar remedy proposed.

In regard to the cotton-spinning industry it was shown that the 47 spinning factories, with 581,000 spindles, in existence in Austria proper in 1854, had diminished at present to 29 factories with 406,464 spindles; that the tariff of 1879 had produced little, if any, benefit, and that while the average annual importation of cotton yarn in Austria-Hungary during 1876–'80 amounted to over 21,000,000 florins, the exports for same period did not amount to 1,000,000 florins.

To remedy this it was proposed to increase, about 50 per cent., the present tariff from 6 to 20 florins per 100 kilograms. And as the same unsatisfactory condition was claimed for other yarns and textiles of every nature, the same increase was likewise demanded for these articles.

It should not be understood that opinion was by any means unanimous that such a proposed remedy would be effectual, but while a contrary opinion was occasionally raised and strongly argued, the final outcome of the discussion was that the resolution of the report to ask for increased duties on these articles was carried by large and important majorities, so that the matter will almost certainly, at an early day, be brought to the notice of Parliament. But as the dual form of this government makes every change of policy difficult, particularly in respect to protective duties, to which Hungary, as an almost exclusively agricultural nation, strongly objects as it taxes her inhabitants for the benefit of Austrian manufacturers, it is questionable if the design of the protectionists will succeed, unless after a hard battle and mutual concessions to the Hungarians in other directions.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, September 17, 1881.

OCTROI DUTIES AT VIENNA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER.

From the statistics recently published relative to the octroi and excise duties collected by the city of Vienna during the last decade, I abstract the following items, which may be of interest:

The amount of octroi duties collected at the *lines*, surrounding a population of 726,105 inhabitants, as per census of 1880, during 1871–'80, was 66,567,000 florins. In addition to this, the excise duty collected on the manufacture of wine, brandy, and other articles, *within the city lines*, amounted to 36,122 florins, making an average annual consumption tax of over 10,500,000 florins.

The several articles on which the octroi taxes were collected will be seen from the following table, showing the annual average amount col-

lected during the quinquenium of 1871–'75, and 1876–'80, given in florins whose value is about 41 cents:

Articles.	1871–1875.	1876–1880.
	Florins.	*Florins.*
Beer	1,442,000	1,157,600
Meat, fish, cattle, and game	2,168,000	2,126,800
Wine	1,445,000	1,275,200
Eggs	73,400	75,000
Fruit	136,000	124,600
Flour, bread, and vegetables	590,800	649,800
Cheese	48,200	37,400
Fat and lard	184,600	199,400
Oils	185,600	200,800
Fodder	249,400	221,600
Fuel	231,400	238,400
Others	15,200	14,200
Total	6,769,600	6,320,800

The foregoing table shows during the last five years an annual average decrease of over 6 per cent.

In 1874 the tax on building material was abolished, which had produced in 1871–'74 the sum of 1,115,000 florins, not included in the table. It is worthy of note that out of the 65,452,000 florins collected in the decade, omitting the amount collected on building material, the total collected on meat, fish, cattle, and game was 21,474,000 florins, or 32.8 per cent. of the whole, while that collected on wine and must was 13,601,000 florins, or 20.6 per cent., and on beer 12,998,000 florins, or about 20 per cent. The average annual quantity of beer passing the lines during the decade was 776,869 hectoliters, and of wine 275,812 hectoliters, yet while the population has been increasing the entry of beer and wine has fallen off from 5,484,209 hectoliters in 1876–'80, being over 8 per cent.

But, on the contrary, it would appear that the consumption of brandy, liquor, and other spirits has greatly increased, judging from the following table showing the number of manufactories, merchants, and retailers of these articles in Vienna during the years noted, viz:

Years.	Manufactories.	Merchants.	Retailers.
1872	268	260	293
1873	276	275	307
1874	324	321	315
1876	358	416	301
1877	372	514	320
1878	335	528	324
1879	319	527	324

From the foregoing table it appears that the manufactories during the seven years have increased 19 per cent., the merchants or wholesale houses 102 per cent., and retailers 12 per cent., showing a total increase of 353 establishments, being about 43 per cent. of the whole.

The tariff of duties embraces all principal articles of food, and are in some instances quite high, viz: Wine pays 4.24 florins; must, 2.83; cider, 1.27, and beer, 1.40 florins per hectoliter; hogs, over 43 pounds weight, 2.10 florins apiece; fresh meat and sausages, 4.91 florins; fish, 3.75; rice, 3.75; candles, 3.75; soap, 4.85; wax, 4.69; oil, 3.12; flour and bread, 0.62, and grain, 0.47 florins per 100 kilograms.

These taxes are levied and regulated by general law, and go into the general exchequer, but the municipal governments have the right, which

they exercise, to levy an additional tax amounting to about one-fifth of the general tax.

This municipal tax on beer is 41 kreutzer; on wine, 78, and on must, 58 kreutzer per hectoliter. It yields about 1,500,000 guldens yearly, half of which goes to the poor and other funds, and the other half is turned into the city exchequer.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES.
Vienna, Austria, September 10, 1881.

THE TRADE AND COMMERCE OF CANADA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT ROBBINS, OF OTTAWA.

I have the honor to submit herewith my first quarterly report of the business transacted at this commercial agency, together with such additional information as seems to be within the scope of the consular regulations. The Dominion of Canada being contiguous to the United States, and the web of commercial intercourse so intricately interwoven between the people of the two countries, whatever affects the one, either injuriously or otherwise, leaves its impress also upon the other, and, hence, during the period of commercial depression in the States incident to the resumption of specie payments, the people of Canada were experiencing a similar embarrassment.

The cities situate along the Saint Lawrence were the first to feel the effects of the business revival in the States. Ottawa, being some fifty miles inland, has not so quickly recovered, but is now regarded as being on the highway to prosperity, and the people here predict for it a bright and brilliant future. The land in this vicinity is claimed to be well adapted for agricultural purposes, and, as a matter of fact, almost all kinds of grain and vegetables are grown successfully; but the long and severe winters make the keeping of stock expensive, and constitute a serious obstacle to successful farming on a large scale. The past season has been an exceptionally good one, and the husbandman has been rewarded with good crops. Most of the farm products are required for home consumption, with perhaps the exception of oats and some rye. Ottawa is celebrated principally for being the capital of the Dominion and the center of the lumbering interest of the Ottawa Valley. Upon the river of the same name and its tributaries for hundreds of miles to the northwest, the lumbering business is conducted extensively; the logs being cut in the winter season are floated down in the spring to this point and boomed for sawing. There are situate here a number of fine saw-mills, and the amount of lumber manufactured is large. Most of it is marketed in the States, the principal ports of entry being Burlington, Vt., Rouse's Point, Ogdensburgh, and Albany, N. Y. A large amount is also brought down the Ottawa River on rafts and taken to Quebec and exported to England.

Directly and indirectly, this lumbering business furnishes employment to a large number of men at fair wages, and a market for farm products at good prices. Owing to my recent arrival at this agency, I am unable to give a reliable detailed account of affairs in this district; but wish to say that my information shows that for the past season labor of all kinds has been in good demand and fairly remunerated, and that the country is

in fact, regarded as being in a highly prosperous condition. The financial statements for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1881, have not yet been made public, but it is intimated in official circles that the trade of the Dominion for that year has been very satisfactory, showing an increased volume of both exports and imports, with an excess on the export side of the balance sheet.

As part of this report, I submit a number of statements, taken largely from official documents and containing matters of a general interest, together with a showing of the business transacted at this agency for the quarter ending September 30, 1881.

R. B. ROBBINS,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Ottawa, October 3, 1881.

POPULATION OF CANADA.

The population of the Dominion of Canada in 1881, and compared with the census of 1871, is as follows:

Provinces.	1871.	1881.	Increase.
Ontario	1,620,815	1,913,460	292,609
Quebec	1,191,516	1,358,469	166,953
Nova Scotia	387,800	440,585	52,785
New Brunswick	285,594	321,129	35,535
Prince Edward Island	94,021	107,781	13,760
Manitoba	12,728	49,509	36,781
British Columbia	33,586	66,000	26,414
Northwestern Territories	60,500	100,000	39,500
Grand totals	3,686,596	4,350,933	664,337

Indians are included in the above.

PRINCIPAL CITIES.

The population of the principal cities of the Dominion in 1881, and compared with the census of 1871, is as follows:

Cities.	1871.	1881.	Increase.
Montreal	107,225	140,682	33,457
Quebec	59,696	62,447	2,751
Toronto	56,002	86,445	30,443
Halifax	29,582	36,102	6,520
Hamilton	26,716	35,965	9,249
Ottawa	21,545	27,417	5,872
London	15,826	19,763	3,937
Kingston	12,407	14,093	1,786
			Decrease.
Saint John	28,805	26,128	2,677

RAILWAYS OF CANADA.

The total railway mileage of the Dominion of Canada on the 30th June, 1880, and compared with the year 1879, is as follows:

	Mileage.
Railways in operation in 1880	6,891.18
Railways in operation in 1879	6,255.01
Total increase in 1880 over 1879	636.17

The above does not include 208.50 miles of the Grand Trunk and 21 miles of the Southeastern Railway in the United States.

Total number of miles under construction:	
In 1879	1,537.83
In 1880	1,416.31
Total decrease of miles under construction in 1880	121.52

Amount of subsidy paid and still to be paid by the various governments and municipalities to the railways in Canada.

	Paid.	To be paid.
Dominion Government	$74,245,165 44	$40,000,000 00
Ontario Government	2,982,037 02	1,089,000 00
Quebec Government	11,089,419 58	2,244,062 69
New Brunswick Government	2,749,000 00	559,000 00
Nova Scotia Government	818,750 00	1,026,690 00
Municipalities	8,313,944 63	4,211,799 74
Totals	100,198,316 67	49,139,952 43

TRADE OF CANADA.

Statement showing the aggregate trade of the Dominion of Canada with all countries for the following years:

1876	$175,699,653
1877	172,175,876
1878	170,523,244
1879	151,832,863
1880	159,693,807

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the value of exports from the Dominion to the United States for the following years:

1876	$31,933,459
1877	25,775,245
1878	25,244,898
1879	27,165,501
1880	33,349,909

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES FOR CONSUMPTION.

Statement showing the value of goods entered for consumption from the United States into the Dominion of Canada for the following years:

1876	$46,070,033
1877	51,312,669
1878	48,631,739
1879	43,739,219
1880	29,346,948

N. B.—The value of the goods entered for export not given.

EXPORTS FROM EACH PROVINCE TO THE UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the total value of exports from each province of the Dominion of Canada to the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880.

Provinces.	Products of Canada.	Not the products of Canada.	Totals.
Ontario	$17,513,341	$384,079	$17,897,420
Quebec	3,903,050	488,886	4,391,936
Nova Scotia	1,529,757	294,201	1,823,958
New Brunswick	1,377,623	822,335	2,199,958
Manitoba	108,205	1,963	110,168
British Columbia	1,910,322	51,226	1,961,548
Prince Edward Island	370,594	1,189	371,783
Northwestern Territories	49,813		49,813
Grand totals	26,762,705	2,043,879	28,806,584

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES INTO EACH PROVINCE.

Statement showing the value of goods imported from the United States into each province of the Dominion and entered for consumption for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880.

Provinces.	Dutiable goods.	Free goods.	Totals.
Ontario	$10,062,620	$4,110,049	$14,172,669
Quebec	4,503,678	4,637,302	9,140,980
Nova Scotia	1,528,150	430,376	1,958,526
New Brunswick	1,313,329	399,623	1,712,952
Manitoba	784,040	64,218	848,258
British Columbia	1,088,528	106,054	1,194,582
Prince Edward Island	168,672	32,669	201,341
Northwestern Territories	117,580	90	117,670
Grand totals	19,566,567	9,780,381	29,346,948

CUSTOMS DUTIES COLLECTED BY CANADA.

Statement showing the aggregate of duties collected by the Dominion of Canada from all countries for the following years:

1876	$12,833,114 48
1877	12,548,451 09
1878	12,795,693 17
1879	12,939,540 66
1880	14,338,849 22
1881	18,492,644 00

DUTIES COLLECTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the duties collected by the Dominion on goods entered from the United States for the following years:

1876	$4,117,223 40
1877	4,426,394 79
1878	4,794,599 63
1879	5,529,150 64
1880	4,521,311 08

EXPENSES IN THE COLLECTION OF CUSTOMS.

Statement showing the annual percentage of expenses in the collection of customs revenues in the Dominion for the following years:

	Per cent.
1876	5.61
1877	5.77
1878	5.58
1879	5.56
1880	5.04

IMMIGRATION.

Statement showing the number of immigrant passengers passing through Canada to the United States, and the number of settlers stopping in Canada, for the following years:

Years.	Immigrants for the United States.	Settlers for Canada.
1876	10,916	14,499
1877	5,640	15,323
1878	11,226	18,372
1879	20,500	30,717
1880	47,112	*27,544

*Seventeen thousand immigrants it is reported of 1880 went into Manitoba, leaving a very small increase of population from immigration to the other provinces for that year.

LIVE STOCK EXPORTED.

Statement showing the number of cattle, sheep, and swine exported from the Dominion to Europe for the following years:

Years.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.
1877	6,940	9,509	430
1878	18,655	41,250	2,078
1879	25,009	80,332	5,385
1880	50,905	81,843	709

I apprehend that the increased export of cattle in 1880 is due largely to the extension of the Canadian system of railways to Chicago and the Northwest, as I am advised that heavy shipments of cattle go over the Grand Trunk. The following significant extract is taken from the report of the chief inspector of live stock for 1880; he says: "Canada is not adapted for hog-raising. Our farmers can never compete with the United States in this branch of stock."

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Ottawa, Canada, to the United States during the quarter ending September 30, 1881.

Sawn lumber	$850,367 27
Box shooks	9,507 66
Eggs	4,317 81
Railway ties	6,124 18
Laths	309 00
Phosphate rock	4,884 00
Dimension timber	1,057 45
Deals	2,337 35
Raw hides	221 19
Potatoes	637 52
Pressed hay	392 75
Miscellaneous	451 00
Settlers' effects	2,422 00
	883,029 21

R. B. ROBBINS,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Ottawa, October 3, 1881.

THE CENTRIFUGE IN DAIRY THRIFT.

REPORT BY CONSUL RIDER, OF COPENHAGEN, DENMARK.

I have the honor to transmit herewith a report on the centrifuge in dairy thrift, &c.

The expansion in dairy thrift develops so rapidly that before one has time to look around it is found to be in quite another stage. When it is considered how quickly it has passed through the different stages from the tub to the ice system, and the amount of labor demanded during these transitions, together with the changes which occurred in different parts of the interior working of the dairies, it will be seen in this general review of the dairy thrift that a forward movement of considerable interest is in course of progress. That, which for the time being, has caused the greatest stir is the employment of the centrifuge in cream setting. When it is borne in mind how recently this matter has been raised in this country, the facts that there are now already over one hundred centrifuges, chiefly the Roskilde and Lavalsk centrifuges, in prac-

tical use in Denmark, and that orders for further supply at early dates are numerous and steadily on the increase, afford evident proof of the attention given to this question. There has been no discussion on dairy questions of late, where the centrifuge has not been brought forward, and there is scarcely to be found any energetic dairy proprietor in this country who has not given the closest consideration as to the service the centrifuge could be to him in obtaining the largest product from the milk.

The comparative experiments of Professor Fjord (previously reported by me) have had a great influence on dairy thrift; they have afforded a basis for that which in practice is of great importance. With the use of fixed tables (transmitted to the department with former reports on this subject), it is now shown what increase of product can be obtained by the use of the centrifuges, in the experimental trials partly with normal milk, such as is generally found on a dairy farm, and partly when the milk, from one cause or another, is in an abnormal condition in connection with its cream setting, either because in its nature straight from the cow it deviates from the normal, or because it has been brought to such condition by an unavoidable cooling before the cream setting, so that it cannot, by ice cooling under usual process, form its entire quantity of cream.

The tables transmitted with my report on dairy thrift, in dispatch No. 139, August 15, 1880, are in that respect of great practical value. These prove, that while the increase of product with the centrifuge, as opposed to ice-cooling, during thirty-four hours of normal milk, can only be calculated at about 4 to 7 per cent. Butter, on the other hand is easily raised with the heavy milk from 18 to 28 per cent.; and (with the heavy milk) as opposed to tubs from 13 to 15 per cent.

Finally Professor Fjord, at the meeting in Jutland in January of this year, mentioned that the centrifuge, in the treatment of heavy milk in the union dairies, had by experimental trials given 14 to 15 per cent. greater product of butter than the ice system.

In connection with these results from experiments with regard to quantity in the yield, it is necessary, in order to judge of the economical advantage which the centrifuge can render to a dairy, to take into account the several different conditions which practically might exert their influence. The series of experiments made by Professor Fjord points to one of these conditions. The centrifuge (Lehfeldt's) which was used in the trials made at Rosenfeldt in 1879–1880 was disordered either from improper setting up or from being used too violently in the month of August, and consequently in that month the result showed that ice-cooling demonstrated an advantage over the centrifuge by about 3 per cent. more product of butter. The needful requirement for the centrifuge's superiority is therefore that it should work with absolute ease and accuracy, and be always maintained in perfect order. Professor Fjord's latest experiments were made in Jutland, and demonstrate that an increase in the milk quantity, worked, at the same time, with a decrease in the rapidity causes a falling off in the product, and proves the necessity of the extreme exactitude required in the employment and working of the centrifuge, so that the increase of product may be a practical reality.

On the other hand, it is equally certain that in ice-cooling great exactitude is demanded in order to obtain the greatest yield, and especially that the ice should never run short—a contingency which very few dairies have hitherto been able to guard against, and which, from foregone experience, might be looked upon as almost impossible.

As far as can be judged from practice, it would not appear to be a matter of difficulty to keep the centrifuge in good working order the whole year round in the dairy, with the aid of such means as one usually has at disposal. From several places proofs are at hand that the centrifuges, after an experience of some duration, have proved to be easy of management, and that apparently no wear and tear of any consequence is to be observed when the apparatus is carefully looked after, and kept in good order.

The management seems on the whole to be a problem, where the necessary routine is quickly learned by those working with centrifuges and in many dairies in this country the centrifuges are attended to without difficulty by the dairy-maid with female help. If the results generally obtained in practice are compared with the products in quantity, then as a rule it will be ascertained that the same product will be obtained with the centrifuge as with ice-cooling; for experiments with the two systems show it to be fully possible.

As regards the quality of the butter, it would appear that there are no grounds for apprehending that cream setting with the centrifuge can exercise any bad influence, so long as due care is taken to cool the cream from the centrifuge previous to churning, or in placing it in the cream-pan, and then warming it for curdling. As regards cheese-making from the skimmed milk, it is a self consequence that both a lesser quantity and a poorer cheese will be obtained from the milk, when the cream with the centrifuge is taken to an extreme extent.

To obtain good cheese, it is, therefore, at times found advantageous to allow the skimmed milk to retain a minimum of about one per cent. of fat, even where the centrifuge is employed.

Furthermore the difficulties in cheese-making would not appear hard to overcome, and examples are known to me where one has sold summer cheese from centrifuged milk—with a small consumption of milk for butter—at a price of about 6½ cents per pound, and winter cheese in fresh condition at one-fourth to three-eighths less per pound than from the ice dairy thrift.

A bearing of considerable importance in the practical working of the centrifuge is that of the motive power. Professor Fjord stated recently that the small Roskilde centrifuge (for 250 pounds of milk per hour) can be worked by one horse or ox.

The larger Roskilde centrifuge (for 500 pounds milk) could be easily worked with a two-horse power steam machine (with 45 pounds pressure), and not requiring a greater power than for churning 60 pounds of butter. The centrifuge is driven by horse power at several dairies in this country, and apparently without inconvenience. Nevertheless, results from sundry experimental trials have yet to be obtained before it can be decided whether the less steady working with horses will give the centrifuge the same superiority over the other systems as when the motive power is with steam.

Where steam machinery is already set up in the dairy, it will naturally be an easy matter to bring the centrifuge into use, and the dairy expenses in the carrying out of the cream setting with the centrifuge would not appear to be heavier in dairies of larger size than that which would be incurred in the ice-cooling system.

The question thus appears to be reduced: the centrifuge is only adapted for large dairies of not less than 100 cows. Where one has a good dairy on the old system, especially the ice-cooling system, with belongings of roomy ice-cellar, &c., and where one has only home normal milk to work with, or such as suffers from slight heaviness at that season when the

milk yield is lowest, in such cases it will not be found advantageous to change the system and adopt the centrifuge. According to the latest experiments made by Professor Fjord, the churning of milk would appear to be a favorable means for bringing the greatest produce from the normal milk. It is always doubtful if it answers to completely extract all the milk's fatty substance for butter manufacture, when the skimmed milk is destined to be employed in cheese-making, and it will be found in many instances, even where the centrifuge is used, that it is best to keep in that respect within the same bounds as can be obtained with thirty-four hours cooling in a well-arranged ice dairy.

In cases where a new dairy is being erected, the contributions may be different. There, from what is known, may be taken into account the greater importance of the fabric, which the centrifuge undoubtedly entails in the drift, the independence of the conditions which in other systems exert a considerable influence over the yield (ice accumulation, heavy milk, &c.), will leave the advantages on the side of the centrifuge; and a centrifuge dairy will cost little more in the erection than one on the ice system. For the large number of union dairies, under which category may now be placed the entire list of the large dairy farms in the United States, which buy up all the neighboring small supplies of milk, the supply of the centrifuge is most decidedly to be recommended. The larger yield of 14 to 16 per cent. of butter which they could thereby obtain from the milk equals exactly that deficit in the yield which hitherto they have commonly had to suffer in comparison with the private dairy thrifts, and which so frequently has been the rock on which the net proceeds of the concern were wrecked.

The centrifuge will thus increase the importance of the union dairies to a very sensible degree, and will help the small producers' milk to obtain a higher price. When one reflects on the standing of the major part of the small dairies in our country, it is evident that the influence to be accorded to the centrifuge is of no small economic importance.

HENRY B. RYDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, March 31, 1881.

THE NEW DOCK AT LEITH.

REPORT BY CONSUL LEONARD.

An important addition to the dock accommodation of the sea-port of Leith has lately been completed.

The undertaking, which is of great extent, has been in progress for about seven years, and it was formally opened on July 26 last in presence of a large concourse of spectators by Rear Admiral the Duke of Edinburgh, who named it "The Edinburgh Dock."

Similarly to other portions of the extensive system of shipping accommodation which constitutes the port of Leith, the new dock is entirely located on land reclaimed from the sea.

The work of reclamation for it was begun in 1874, and in the autumn of 1877 the dock itself was commenced. The reclamation embankment consists of a dry rubble wall about 30 feet broad at the base and 10 feet 6 inches broad at the top, having a slope on the side next the sea of one in one. This embankment, extending more than a mile eastwards from

the sea-wall of the Albert Dock, was finished in February, 1877. There have been thus reclaimed from the sea in this instance upwards of 108 acres, affording ample space for the construction of a large dock, together with suitable shedding and other requirements.

As further illustrating the magnitude of this undertaking, it is worthy of mention that during the excavating operations when the new dock was being made about 500 men were employed, and two "steam navvies" were used, each of which filled a railway wagon in about three minutes.

One of those machines could excavate 400 cubic yards during a day of ten hours; this represented upwards of 550 tons of material, and such work was considered equal to that of forty men.

Manual labor was economized likewise by means of other appliances employed by the contractors throughout the progress of the works.

Upwards of 100,000 cubic yards of masonry were used in the construction of the dock.

The walls, faced with Craigmillar stone, are 15 feet thick about the base, narrowing in two tiers to 8 feet, and a bed of clay 5 to 7 feet thick is placed between the walls and the embankment, by which it is calculated the works can be kept thoroughly water-tight.

The space around the dock set apart for the accommodation of shipping traffic measures about thirty acres, the remaining ground to the east being divided between the North British and Caledonia Railway Companies, who each thereby acquire twenty-seven acres of the reclaimed area, enabling them to have every facility for carrying on the prompt transit of merchandise.

The north side of the new dock is reserved for coal traffic, in the same manner as the north side of the Albert Dock has been occupied.

The total length of the Edinburgh Dock is 1,500 feet, and its width 650 feet. From the dock floors the walls are 35 feet in height, and at high tide the depth of water will be 27 feet. Access to it is obtained at the western end from the Albert Dock, where there is an entrance channel 270 feet in length by 65 feet in breadth. Over that entrance channel there is a swing bridge made of iron, which is a sixty-five foot span, worked by hydraulic machinery.

At the entrance is a basin the whole width of the dock, 650 feet, and in length 500 feet, while from the eastern end a jetty 250 feet wide extends 1,000 feet, occupying the middle of the dock and dividing its eastern portion into two basins, each 200 feet wide, by which means the quayage accommodation is greatly increased. The entire extent of quay frontage thus provided at the Edinburgh Dock is 6,775 feet. The west end of the jetty contains a graving-dock, 300 feet long, 70 feet wide at the coping, and 48 feet wide at the bottom, which is paved with 4 feet of concrete. This dock will be opened and closed by means of four crab winches worked by hand. It can be speedily emptied of water by a centrifugal pump at the engine house near the dam, in which are two small sluices, as also a large one 4 feet square, for filling the dock with equal readiness.

The Edinburgh Dock is the fifth work of the kind constructed at Leith during the present century, and it affords a remarkable evidence of the great improvement in the trade of the port during that period.

The one now known as the old dock was begun in 1800 and opened in 1806.

The next, the Queen's Dock, commenced in 1810, was finished in 1817. For each of these a dry-dock was provided, 136 feet in length, and having a width at entrance of 36 feet. These two wet-docks are situated at the

west side of the Water of Leith, and occupy an area of 10½ acres. They are 250 yards long and 100 yards wide, and cost £175,000 ($851,637.50). Their total cost, including the graving-docks, drawbridges, and ground, amounted to £285,108 ($1,387,478.08).

Important rearrangements took place during the year 1833, in connection with the management of the docks, and by virtue of an act of Parliament passed in 1838 the port and harbor, with certain docks there constructed, which, previously, under royal grant and acts of the Scottish Parliament, confirmed by a royal charter granted by King James the Sixth in 1603, had been vested in the corporation of the city of Edinburgh, was vested in eleven commissioners, five of whom were appointed by the Lords of the Treasury, three by the city of Edinburgh, and three by the town of Leith.

The docks continued to prosper under "the commissioners for the Harbor and port of Leith," and, the trade increasing, the accommodation for shipping was further extended by the opening in 1852 of the Victoria Dock, which has an area of about 5 acres, and an average depth of water of 22 feet.

In 1858 a valuable addition was made to the dry-dock accommodation of the port by the opening of the Prince of Wales Graving-Dock, which is 370 feet in length, and has a width of 60 feet at the entrance. It is held to be a splendid piece of work of the kind. Several of the largest steamers have been brought to this dock for repairs. The Albert Dock was opened on August 21, 1869, and it was there that hydraulic cranes, made at the works of Sir William Armstrong, were first introduced into Scotland.

The entire cost of the dock, including cranes and sheds, amounted to £224,500 ($1,092,529.25).

The Albert Dock is double the size of any of the first three docks, the water area being 10¾ acres, and the Edinburgh Dock, now completed, is half as large again, having a jetty in addition, which affords double the berthage accommodation.

The entire works connected with the Edinburgh Dock, including the railway undertakings, have cost about £400,000 ($1,946,600).

With reference to the Leith Dock commission above mentioned, whose management of affairs connected with the port and harbor of Leith has been so effective and satisfactory, it may be further stated that since the port was transferred to them forty-three years ago they have expended, in adding to its accommodations by wet-docks and other new works, upwards of £1,000,000 ($4,866,500), while the debt now existing on the port is only about one-third of the amount thus expended, and the revenues, which at the commencement of their administration amounted to only a little over £20,000 ($97,330), have now increased to £80,000 ($389,320) per annum.

In 1876, the constitution of the Leith Dock commission was by act of Parliament considerably altered and enlarged. The board now numbers fifteen members, three being elected by the Edinburgh town council, three by the Leith counsel, one by the Edinburgh Merchant Company, one by the Edinburg Chamber of Commerce two by the ship-owners, one by the Leith Chamber of Commerce, and four by the rate-payers.

J. A. LEONARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leith, September 21, 1881.

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL CRAIN, OF MILAN.

I have the honor to report on the foreign commerce of Italy and the Italian mercantile marine.

The former, covering a period of eighteen years, comprising the movement by land and sea, and indicating the flag, is shown in the following tables:

IMPORTATION.

Years.	By land.	By sea.			Total of imports.
		Italian flag.	Foreign flag.	Total by sea.	
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
1862	311, 094, 487	248, 857, 028	351, 193, 646	600, 050, 674	911, 145, 161
1863	321, 633, 604	238, 920, 680	421, 731, 368	660, 660, 048	982, 293, 652
1864	296, 621, 208	308, 374, 768	487, 730, 365	796, 105, 133	1, 092, 726, 341
1865	297, 612, 161	273, 890, 710	452, 343, 190	726, 233, 900	1, 023, 864, 061
1866	261, 919, 160	258, 804, 644	396, 573, 801	655, 378, 445	917, 297, 605
1867	302, 329, 491	237, 946, 297	424, 945, 975	662, 892, 272	965, 221, 763
1868	313, 505, 929	231, 505, 456	441, 374, 376	672, 879, 832	986, 385, 761
1869	293, 447, 496	254, 442, 832	493, 431, 817	747, 874, 649	1, 041, 322, 145
1870					996, 760, 465
1871	332, 284, 616	264, 617, 111	479, 675, 530	744, 292, 641	1, 076, 577, 257
1872	430, 322, 300	298, 490, 869	577, 610, 470	876, 101, 339	1, 306, 423, 639
1873	472, 984, 637	360, 997, 578	635, 973, 732	996, 971, 310	1, 469, 955, 947
1874	540, 711, 477	284, 606, 253	602, 975, 105	887, 581, 368	1, 428, 292, 845
1875	479, 586, 658	229, 308, 733	588, 804, 794	818, 113, 527	1, 297, 700, 185
1876	571, 674, 931	256, 393, 973	607, 679, 596	864, 073, 569	1, 435, 748, 500
1877	485, 845, 097	239, 829, 484	508, 835, 682	758, 665, 166	1, 244, 510, 263
1878	422, 111, 294	208, 698, 950	510, 771, 455	729, 470, 405	1, 151, 581, 699
1879	461, 775, 865	283, 121, 507	613, 734, 145	896, 855, 652	1, 358, 631, 517

EXPORTATION.

Years.	By land.	By sea.			Grand total in gold.	Total exports and imports, in gold.
		Italian flag.	Foreign flag.	Total by sea.		
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
1862	264, 037, 465	164, 793, 321	228, 658, 047	393, 451, 368	657, 488, 833	1, 568, 633, 994
1863	279, 371, 774	196, 067, 016	224, 826, 846	420, 893, 862	700, 265, 636	1, 682, 559, 288
1864	243, 253, 671	168, 729, 175	219, 940, 857	388, 670, 032	631, 923, 703	1, 724, 650, 044
1865	200, 535, 946	199, 371, 609	213, 229, 211	412, 600, 820	613, 136, 766	1, 637, 000, 827
1866	219, 169, 781	208, 528, 913	240, 250, 452	448, 779, 365	667, 949, 146	1, 585, 246, 751
1867	352, 107, 306	329, 513, 805	240, 271, 539	569, 785, 341	821, 892, 650	1, 787, 114, 413
1868	390, 999, 450	239, 317, 438	245, 598, 736	484, 916, 174	875, 915, 624	1, 862, 301, 385
1869	371, 446, 990	205, 021, 499	298, 001, 554	503, 023, 053	874, 470, 043	1, 915, 792, 188
1870					855, 603, 348	1, 852, 363, 813
1871	579, 156, 364	298, 508, 534	336, 144, 809	634, 653, 343	1, 213, 809, 707	2, 290, 386, 964
1872	678, 031, 399	315, 860, 335	294, 481, 788	610, 342, 123	1, 288, 373, 522	2, 594, 797, 161
1873	672, 011, 907	329, 866, 117	305, 836, 007	635, 702, 134	1, 307, 714, 041	2, 777, 669, 988
1874	574, 888, 832	203, 186, 476	322, 660, 777	525, 847, 253	1, 100, 736, 085	2, 529, 028, 930
1875	546, 928, 038	221, 401, 208	344, 280, 962	565, 682, 170	1, 112, 610, 208	2, 410, 310, 393
1876	766, 376, 774	219, 190, 681	333, 825, 233	553, 015, 914	1, 319, 392, 688	2, 755, 141, 188
1877	528, 503, 603	187, 208, 410	329, 658, 526	516, 866, 936	1, 045, 370, 539	2, 249, 880, 802
1878	618, 738, 714	193, 933, 677	313, 579, 798	507, 513, 475	1, 126, 252, 189	2, 277, 833, 888
1879	609, 601, 807	225, 074, 150	369, 229, 565	594, 303, 715	1, 203, 905, 522	2, 562, 537, 039

I am unable to find data for the year 1870 showing quantity and value of imports and exports according to mode of transport, and therefore give only the value of each, and their total value.

You will observe that the commercial movement of the country compares favorably in proportion to its population with that of others, and

that a satisfactory equilibrium is maintained between exports and imports. None can doubt that a powerful impetus will be given to foreign trade by the resumption of specie payment.

The completion of the St. Gothard Railway, now near at hand, will make Switzerland and a large area of Germany tributary to the port of Genoa, and still further tend to the development of Italian commerce. The government is warmly occupied with projects for piercing the Alps at various points, the construction of new railways, the enlargement of ports, and the employment of all necessary means to give the peninsula that vantage ground which its geographical position should command. The following table exhibits the number and kind of merchant vessels, including coasters, in service in 1879:

	Number.	Tonnage.
Sailing vessels	7,910	933,306
Steamers	151	72,666
Total	8,061	1,005,972

The maritime superiority of Genoa will be manifest by stating that the tonnage of steam and sailing vessels registered there in 1879 reached 517,463, or more than half that of the whole kingdom.

Naples for the same year showed a registry of 1,106 sailing vessels against 1,180 at Genoa, but the tonnage of the former was only 68,585, while that of the latter was 477,775. Genoa had seventy steamers, with a tonnage of 39,688; Palermo, 51, with a tonnage of 29,667; and Naples 11, with a tonnage of but 821.

In eight of the twenty-three maritime districts into which the kingdom is divided, no steam-vessels are registered.

The number and size of ships built in 1879 were as follows:

Ships.	Number.	Tonnage.	Value in francs.
Over 1,000 tons	3	3,090	.....
From 501 to 1,000 tons	13	9,596	.....
From 101 to 500 tons	20	4,383	.....
From 11 to 100 tons	111	3,219	.....
Less than 11 tons	122	925	.....
Total	269	21,213	5,780,740
Average tonnage	.....	79	.....
Maximum tonnage	.....	1,037	.....
Average value	.....	.....	21,489

The mercantile marine was augmented during 1879 by 251 sailing vessels with a tonnage of 20,124, built within the state; by 22 with a tonnage of 5,635, built abroad for Italians; by 102 with a tonnage of 752, purchased from foreigners, and by 975 tons added in other ways. In the same year four steamers were built in Italy of a tonnage of 701, while 11 of foreign construction were bought by Italians. Two with a tonnage of 3,519 were otherwise acquired.

The total augmentation of tonnage was 40,497, while the decrease was 63,682 tons by demolition, shipwreck, sale to foreigners, and others causes.

One hundred and sixty-seven thousand two hundred and eighty-two men are enrolled as "seafaring" in the several maritime districts, of

whom 20,479 belong to Genoa, 18,495 to Naples, 14,643 to Castellamare, 13,284 to Messina, and 13,114 to Palermo. Of these 6,634 are captains, 7,356 sailors licensed for the coasting trade, 83,941 seamen, and the remainder fishermen, engineers, pilots, boatmen, and ship-builders.

That the merchant marine is languishing at the present time is fully realized by the Italian Government, which has recently appointed a commission specially charged to take the suggestions and views of experienced shipping merchants, at the principal ports, as to the best measures to revive and enlarge the carrying trade. The discussions before that body have been chiefly directed to the comparative merits of steam and sailing vessels, the expediency of subsidizing steamship lines, and building of vessels exclusively in Italian ship-yards.

In view of the importance of the subject, and the interest felt in the United States in the revival of our own shipping, it is my intention to report on the conclusions arrived at by this commission and the means and legislation recommended by them for the development of Italian shipping.

DUNHAM J. CRAIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, September 10, 1881.

THE RESOURCES OF LOWER CALIFORNIA.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL DEXTER.

Since my last report of August 15, nothing has transpired to break the monotony of the quarantine of annual occurrence caused by a suspension of all intercourse by water with the outside world save by the monthly mail steamer from San Francisco, which touches at the cape to and fro, on making the circuit of the Gulf of Cortez.

The steamers of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company pass the port within view, but require strong inducements to stop, miles distant, for a boat to reach them with passengers or correspondence; they graciously condescend to receive all coin offered them, but sternly refuse to accommodate or conciliate.

This is the season of the year most distressing to the proletarian class of the population, as no employment is afforded those who are not subjected to a state of peonage; and in the mines farther north, where many resort for means to support their languishing families, but little encouragement is afforded them since the change of the ownership, and economy is the paramount consideration until the orange harvest commences, with the medicinal herbs and other collections of the forest recognized by commerce (the wild fruits which sustain them in July and August having disappeared), continuing with the sugar and cotton harvest, until summer again begins to oppress them by demands which cannot be supplied. The continued increased demand for cotton at remunerative prices for cash has induced a majority of those who possess or can obtain land susceptible of irrigation to substitute that plant for all others. There will be, it is supposed, a decrease in the production of sugar, the price having fallen greatly, as the supply was much greater than the demand. It is usual that the attention of all is turned to the plant which proves

the most profitable, to the neglect of all others, until the market is overstocked and an increased demand arises for those neglected, when all turn their attention again to these, with the same result.

The production of cotton has proved the sole exception to this rule. There is no certainty in cereals, no security for their maturing; so many contingencies are they subjected to, that the labor of a season is entirely lost by a dew called "miel," more properly termed "manna;" by the worm, and by other blights. Favorable seasons produce profitable results. The scarcity of water when most needed is the most serious drawback, and permanent water cannot be secured under the present revenue laws. The scarcity of stock has produced an increase in the value of meats to more than double for butchering; the increased demand for dry hides has aided in this.

But little more than six inches of rain has fallen in this vicinity since the season opened; still an astonishing change is visible in the surface of the country, proving the remarkable fertility of the soil, which, being of a light and sandy loam, requires, until well saturated, many repetitions of rainfall more than is usually furnished by nature, for this country is *par excellence* the market for well-diggers and pump-makers.

The appearance of the territory from the sea, upon either side, is very repulsive compared with other coasts, and with other portions of the Pacific coast more favored with rain, but a careful inspection or a short residence will convince the most skeptical that it possesses vast resources and is even superior to Upper California. It is to be regretted that Mr. Trist was so badly informed as to the nature of its value as to ignore the pledges of the agents of our government given to the people by authority, that the stars and stripes would never be removed from it, forcing those who adhered to our cause to flee for their lives. Many have since been compelled to return to die upon their former homesteads, but had faith been kept with them, it is safe to assert that this despised land would not alone have kept step with her daughter, the "Alta," to the music of the Union, but would now have excelled her in wealth and population, blossoming as the rose, affording happy homes to an enterprising, prosperous, and enlightened population, with an immense trade upon the Gulf and Pacific coasts, on each of which are to be found a great many of the finest natural harbors.

There is little or no land which cannot be made available for valuable purposes by the exercise of a little energy and industry, with very small capital, under a liberal and fostering government, and possessing an industrious, honest, and moral population.

The mountains contain minerals of every known class; even their summits contain abundance of water and nutritious grapes, with timber in the gorges, of different species, applicable to ornament as well as divers useful domestic and mechanical purposes.

The plains are extensive and well supplied with pasturage and some timber, and abound in valuable fruits.

Upon the Gulf coast, where there is no rain, pasturage fails. Upon the opposite coast, the constant and heavy dews secure sustenance for stock even in absence of rains. The emigrant can choose his land and climate in the area lying between the coast (where frost is unknown) and the mountains. Here he can have four degrees of clime to choose from, with a soil whereon every exotic can be produced. In localities where natural fountains are not met with, water is near the surface, and can be easily raised. A large part of the table-land and foot-hills are occupied solely by the wild animals indigenous to the country.

The only obstacle to be met is one universal in Mexico, "the dog in manger" squatter, whose lands extend as far as eyes can reach.

The Pacific coast is where the moss called orchilla alone is found. There are on both coasts breeding-points for whales, and large captures are made; much oil is produced from other fish. Shell-fish is also abundant upon the coast, and favorite fish of all descriptions for food.

The Gulf is a veritable mine of treasures, yielding, as it does, mother-of-pearl, oriental pearl, the naca, the hacha, and other ornamental shells of great variety for exportation, and for lime, which is constantly manufactured therefrom. There are also innumerable flocks of seals, and fish of all descriptions.

Upon its shores, as well as in the interior, there exist deposits of copper and gypsum sufficient to supply the entire world. The gypsum exists in a crude and crystallized state, and takes a polish as fine as that of marble, and is used for household movables, monuments, and tables, and can be selected of every hue of the rainbow, both pure and mixed colors.

Since the year 1874 apiaries have been established, and annually more "busy little bees" fly to the mountains than are secured by their owners; thus the uplands are becoming filled with them, making it literally "a land flowing with milk and honey."

The flora is for the most part new to botany, and is varied and valuble. It is believed that no quarter of the globe contains so great a variety of medicinal plants and roots which, though little known outside the Territory, have been successfully used for centuries by the "curanderas" native to the soil.

The great want of the country is an honest, industrious, enterprising, and laborious population. This would make it a terrestrial paradise.

Copper mines have been very successfully worked for more than ten years, and some silver mines for a much longer time, and all of them have proved productive. Gold mines are but little worked, but nevertheless, such as they are, they have proved to be the principal support of the entire population. Individuals have accumulated small fortunes from the pearl fisheries, the orchilla moss, and the copper mines, but they only enter slightly as a factor in the sustenance of the general population. In fact, the discovery of valuable deposits of the orchilla moss has led the central government to credit the report that more than sufficient resources had been developed to furnish occupation to the inhabitants. This caused the withdrawal of the concession, formerly enjoyed by the people, for the introduction of food from San Francisco, either free or nearly so; but the truth is that laborers alone, and only few of them, reaped any advantage from the discovery, for foreign capitalists control the lands by contract and disburse an infinitely small amount for its collection, making payment in food and clothing at exorbitant prices, and in quantities little more than sufficient to support the laborer while engaged in the employment. When the rainy season commences the work is suspended.

The resources of Alta California are decreasing as the mines and the soil become exhausted, but those resources of Lower California are yet in a virgin state and are inexhaustible, unless by the occurrence of a cataclysm which would reverse the poles for the equator.

HENRY DEXTER,
United States Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
San José, Cape San Lucas, September 15, 1881.

THE JOINT STOCK INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISES OF SAXONY.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON, OF DRESDEN.

The Dresden and Leipsic bourses quote the shares of about fifty different companies manufacturing articles which form part of Saxon industries and labors, renowned throughout Europe, and much of which enter our ports for many years past.

I deem it interesting to exhibit the amount of capital invested in these enterprises, and their productions and earnings. I have therefore prepared and divided them into four tables, which I herewith inclose:

Table A, embracing thirteen breweries.

Table B, embracing eight paper manufactories.

Table C, embracing sixteen engine manufactories, &c.

Table D, embracing sixteen miscellaneous manufactories.

I have procured the figures herein contained from the latest balance-sheets of the respective companies, but beg to remark that a comparison in regard to production, &c., would not give an exact result, as the different companies close their business year at different periods, as noted in the tables.

Though the figures contained therein do not require commentary, I may be permitted to add a few remarks.

The total stock invested amounts to—

	Value of stock invested.	Amount of dividend distributed.
	Marks.	*Marks.*
Table A	11, 622, 000	651, 500
Table B	14, 139, 000	1, 289, 390
Table C	33, 885, 600	1, 084, 000
Table D	18, 822, 600	1, 058, 350
Total Marks	78, 469, 200	4, 083, 240
Equal to	$18, 675, 670	$971, 810

which gives about 5¼ per cent. dividend, average; the breweries about 5½ per cent.; the paper manufactories about 9 per cent.; the engine manufactories, &c., about 3¼ per cent.; and the miscellaneous manufactories about 5½ per cent.

It will be observed that the paper manufacturing industry is the most profitable, while the engine, &c., industry is the least so, for all of the nine paper manufactories have declared dividends, while only seven of the thirteen breweries, seven of the sixteen engine and other manufactories, and twelve of the sixteen miscellaneous manufactories, were able to declare any dividend to the stockholders.

It may also be observed that while some of the companies with small gross earnings were enabled to declare a dividend, others, which had much larger receipts, were unable to do so. The reason of this must be accounted for in the fact that the latter had been established on a false basis; that is to say, the stock account was invariably placed at exorbitant figures, having been contracted for at the inflated prices of everything—building material, labor, and machinery of every character—in the years 1871, 1872, 1873, and 1874, succeeding the war with France, when Germany was wild with speculation of every kind, which to this day is sensibly and seriously felt.

Besides, the years 1879 and 1880 were not particularly favorable to the development of Saxon industry. Almost all the reports of the companies embraced in the inclosed tables, even of the paper manufactories, complain of the stringency of the times, of depressed prices of the manufactured article, and of inflated prices of rough material, in addition to limited consumption generally; and last, but not least, of the insufficient protection granted by the new tariff, which does not prevent an oppressive competition of foreign manufactures.

I have studied the different reports of the German boards of commerce in regard to this question, which invariably state that the tariff on imported goods has been fixed too low by the German Government. It is true the time elapsed is too short to judge definitely in this regard, but I am convinced that in the near future alterations will be made in the existing tariff, occasioned by thousands of petitions presented by manufacturers of all branches of trade.

JOS. T. MASON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dresden, August 24, 1881.

[Inclosure 1 in No. 93.]

TABLE A.—*Breweries.*

Firm.	Town.	Year ending—	Stock invested.	Production.	Gross earnings.	Dividend distributed.
			Reichsmark.	*Hectoliters.*	*Reichsmark.*	*Reichsmark.*
Bayersches Brauhaus	Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	837, 300	21, 054	78, 388. 10	.....
Felsenkeller Brauerei	Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	900, 000	88, 346	459, 664. 38	216, 000
Feldschlosschen Brauerei	Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	750, 000	46, 620	170, 759. 51	.....
Gambrinus Brauerei	Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	840, 000	30, 236	48, 344. 61	.....
Gohliser Brauerei	Gohlis and Leipsic	Oct. 1, 1880	900, 000	67, 878	186, 822. 23	36, 000
Hofbrauhaus Brauerei	Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	1, 761, 000	26, 335	90, 414. 83	.....
Meissen Felsenkeller Brauerei	Meissen	Oct. 1, 1880	594, 600	18, 870	80, 175. 37	.....
Plauneseher Lagerkeller	Plauen and Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	1, 050, 000	35, 840	98, 543. 94	35, 000
Radeberg Bierbrauerei	Radeberg and Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	689, 100	24, 847	50, 568. 90	.....
Reisewitzer Bierbrauerei	Reisewitz and Dresden	Oct 1, 1880	750, 000	43, 316	77, 298. 86	37, 500
Schloss Chemnitz Act Bierbrauerei	Chemnitz	Sept. 1, 1880	750, 000	51, 650	285, 576. 07	135, 000
Societats Bierbrauerei	Dresden	Oct. 1, 1880	1, 200, 000	55, 076	66, 771. 16	42, 000
Vereins Bierbauerei	Leipsic	Oct. 1, 1880	600, 000	69, 231	306, 103. 94	150, 000
Total		.....	11, 622, 000	579, 299	1, 999, 432. 50	651, 500

[Inclosure 2 in No. 93.]

TABLE B.—*Paper manufactories.*

Firm.	Town.	Year ending—	Stock invested.	Production.	Gross earnings.	Dividend distributed.
			Reichsmark.	*Kilograms.*	*Reichsmark.*	*Reichsmark.*
Chemnitz Pap. Fabr	Chemnitz	June 30, 1880	1, 500, 000	1, 821, 637	1, 130, 165. 10	150, 000
Dresden Pap. Fabr	Dresden	June 30, 1880	975, 000	1, 286, 106	891, 643. 50	50, 040
N. Schlema Pap. Fabr	Nieder and Schlema	Dec. 31, 1880	804, 000	1, 790, 854	803, 344. 63	120, 600
Penig Pat. Pap. Fabr	Penig	June 30, 1880	3, 000, 000	3, 592, 407	2, 302, 658 86	200, 000
Sebnitz Pap. Fabr	Sebnitz	April 1, 1881	1, 200, 000	2, 306, 390	1, 154, 659. 93	96, 000
Thodesche Pap. Fabr	Hainsberg	June 30, 1880	2, 700, 000	4, 241, 232	2, 145, 704. 95	351, 000
Verein Bautzner Pap. Fabr	Bautzen	Dec. 31, 1880	2, 700, 000	3, 910, 181	2, 276, 973. 56	243, 000
Weissenborn	Weissenborn	Dec. 31, 1880	1, 260, 000	1, 792, 628	1, 068, 898. 69	78, 750

TABLE C.—*Engine manufactories, iron works, and branches connected.*

Firm.	Town.	Year ending—	Stock invested.	Production.	Value of goods manufactured.	Dividend distributed.
			Reichsmark.	*Kilograms.*	*Reichsmark.*	*Reichsmark.*
Chtz. Werkzeug Masch. fabr. (Zimmermann)	Chemnitz	June 30, 1880	5, 400, 000	1, 807, 800	1, 424, 466 00	.....
Chtz. Werkzeug Masch. fabr. (Vulkan)	....do	Mar. 31, 1881	555, 000	397, 450	263, 448 36	.....
Damyf. & Spinn Masch. fabrik	....do	June 30, 1880	2, 400, 000	(*)	(*)	24, 000
Deutsche Werkzeug Masch. fabrik	....do	June 30, 1880	2, 100, 000	359, 832	258, 740 88	.....
Grossenh. Webstuhl Masch. fabrik	Grosseinhain	Mar. 31, 1881	450, 000	(*)	235, 664 00	28, 500
Lauchhamer Eisengiess	Friedrichsthal	June 30, 1880	5, 625, 000	18, 386, 898	4, 391, 336 65	.....
Lansitzer Maschin. fabrik	Bautzen	June 30, 1880	300, 000	231, 000	146, 000 00	.....
Masch. Bauanstalt Golzern	Golzern	June 30, 1880	900, 000	775, 300	425, 249 11	58, 500
Meissen Eisengiesserei & M. B. A	Meissen	Apr. 30, 1881	870, 000	1, 548, 300	499, 923 91	.....
Saxonia Eisenwerke & E. B. f	Radeberg	June 30, 1880	960, 600	2, 430, 000	793, 266 71	.....
Sachs. Dampfschiff Masch. B. A	Dresden	Sept. 30. 1880	675, 000	(*)	593, 334 94	.....
Sachs. Masch. fabrik (Hartman)	Chemnitz	June 30, 1880	7, 500, 000	8, 202, 123	6, 643, 558 78	600, 000
Sachs. Stickmasch fabrik	Kappel	June 30, 1880	1, 350, 000	(*)	991, 054 40	108, 000
Sachs. Webstuhl fabrik (Schonherr)	Chemnitz	June 30, 1880	3, 000. 000	(*)	606, 837 64	240, 000
Werkzeug Masch. fabrik (Union)	Chemnitz	.....	1, 050, 000	148, 076	161, 505 05	.....
Zwickauer Masch. fabrik	Zwickau	Apr. 30, 1881	750, 000	724, 877	486, 747 00	25, 000
Total	.....	.....	33, 885, 600	.....	.....	1, 084, 000

* Not obtainable.

TABLE D.—*Miscellaneous manufactories.*

Firm.	Town.	Year ending—	Branch.	Stock invested.	Production.	Value of goods manufactured.	Dividend distributed.
				Reichsmark.		*Reichsmark.*	*Reichsmark.*
Sächs. Kamagarn Spennerie	Harthan	April 30, 1880	Yarn and linen	2,040,000	337,335 kilos	2,721,659 26	81,000
Chemnitz Actien Spennerei	Chemnitz	Dec. 31, 1880	do	1,558,900	1,524,425 kilos	3,063,022 83	85,000
Leipzig Kamagarn Spennerei	Leipzig	Dec. 31, 1880	do	2,250,000	552,233 kilos	5,600,000 00	375,000
Weissthaler Actien	Weissthal	Mar. 31, 1881	do	600,000	325,818 kilos	606,000 00	24,000
Sächs. Nähfad. fabr. (Heydenreich)	Witzschdorf	Mar. 31, 1881	Thread	2,550,000	393,652 kilos	Not obtained.	76,500
Bautz Tuchfabrik & Kunstmuhle	Bautzen	May 31, 1880	Cloth and flour	1,350,000	{ 1,082 pieces cloth { 2,418,759 kilos flour	193,210 39 590,000 00	
Leder Militär Effect. Fabrik	Dresden	Dec. 30, 1880	Leather	675,000	Not obtained	826,951 12	33,750
Dresdner Lederfabrik (Bierling)	do	Mar. 31, 1881	do	1,425,000	234,196 pieces fills	2,475,235 39	92,625
Sächs. Lederindustrie (Beck)	Döbeln	Dec. 31, 1880	do	1,050,000	169,828 pieces fills	1,603,363 92	
Ver. Dresdn. Strohhutfabriken	Dresden	June 30, 1880	Straw hats	900,000	Not obtained	704,716 54	45,000
Sächs. Ofen and Chamotte Fabrik	Cölln. u. Meissen	Dec. 31, 1880	Stoves & earthenware	660,600	4,770 stoves, &c	347,982 00	32,760
Meissner Ofen and Chamotte Fabrik	Meissner	Dec. 31, 1880	do	750,000	3,965 stoves, &c	360,075 25	45,000
Sächs. Holzindustrie	Rabenau	June 30, 1880	Wooden furniture	477,800	76,826 pieces furniture	529,812 00	
Ver. Radeberger Glashütten	Radeberg	Dec. 31, 1880	Glassware	705,000	{ 1,131,000 kilos { 108,000 square meters	356,982 34 141,020 76	
Dresden Presshef & Komspir. Fabr	Dresden	June 30, 1880	Spirits and refuse	900,000	{ 335,000 kilos refuse { 950,000 liter spirits	547,097 10 518,904 16	} 99,000
Ver. Fabriken phot. Papiere	Mittweida	Dec. 31, 1880	Photographic paper	930,300	11,152 ries		74,115
Total				18,822,600			1,058,350

1 reichsmark = 0.238 $
1 kilogram = 0.207 lb. avdp.
1 □ meter = 1.20 □ yards.
1 hectoliter = 26.385 gallons.
1 liter = 2.11 pints.
1 ries = 1 ream.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF ALGERIA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT JOURDAN.

I have the honor to transmit herewith a report of trade and navigation of Algeria for the year ending 1879; the statements for the year 1880 cannot yet be obtained from customs offices.

The general imports in the inclosed statement amount to $54,425,220, of which $712,472 only are American products, and the exports $30,383,685, of which $425,776 were shipped to the United States. Considering the great progress of agriculture, which is becoming every year more and more important, it is probable that the time will soon arrive when the exports will exceed the imports. Much is done at present to develop the resources of this country; several railroads are already open to traffic, and new ones are in course of construction. Surveys are carried on by order of the French Government for the opening of a line from Algeria to Timbuctoo, the Soudan, and Senegal; this latter line is intended to be the medium for an immense trade with Central Africa, and it would be highly advisable to make strong efforts to increase the trade of our products with this country in order to take advantage of the facilities being offered for this great market. The railroad from Algiers to Bone and from Bone to Tunis will soon be finished, and will extend to the Gulf of Gabes, with branches to different places on the Mediterranean and the inland towns. By such means as these France is trying to secure an influential control of Tunisian affairs, which is very important on account of the proximity of this colony.

In my last commercial report I called attention to the immense mineral wealth of Algeria, and forwarded information about the rich mines of iron ore at Bone and Benisaf, near Oran, from which many cargoes have been sent lately to the United States. I also reported that new mines will soon be worked on a large scale near Philippeville, in the department of Constantine; and here I must add that carbonate of zinc, sulphide of mercury, various ores of copper, and argentiferous lead ore are also found in great abundance in the same department. I have mentioned the articles which, in addition to the products of the mines, can be exported with advantage to the United States, such as the sparto grass (called alfa) for manufactures of paper, the vegetable hair, the corkwood, raw skins and hides, flaxseed, flax straw, and others. I will now make special mention of the marbles of this country, which are remarkable for their beauty and excellent quality. I have seen specimens of them gray, red, white, green, rose veined, &c. The quarries are at Kleber, in the vicinity of Oran, which is the largest and finest marble district, probably, in the world, and as far as quantity is concerned perhaps there is as much as in all France and Italy together, not excepting the mountains of Carrara. This marble is the celebrated "marmor numidium," so highly prized in ancient Rome. This wealth is at present lying dormant, but would only require comparatively small outlay of capital with proper energy to be turned to good account. Marble blocks can be laid on the wharf at Oran for $24 per cubic meter, or at Arzew for $15. Vessels loading with marble either at Oran or Arzew can fill up with sparto grass, which is very abundant in the vicinity of those ports; there is no export duty in Algeria.

There are also quarries of the beautiful stone known as Algeria onyx

near Ain Teckbaht, about 90 miles distant from Oran. This semi-precious stone was known to the ancients, and columns of it were discovered in the mosque at Mansoura, near Tlemcen. Specimens are placed on exhibition at the museum at Algiers. I am indebted for the above information to Colonel Playfair, H. B. M.'s consul-general for Algeria, who has lately visited the department of Oran, and made a special report to his government concerning the quarries of marble in Algiers.

With respect to imports into this country from the United States, it may be stated that mineral oils of all sorts are largely consumed here, but only a small portion is imported direct from America. Coal is now imported from France, England, and Belgium. Timber and sawed lumber are chiefly brought from Norway and Sweden. Staves and provisions, such as lard, butter, hams and bacon, Indian corn, salmon and canned meats and fruits, crackers, India-rubber manufactures, cotton goods, hardware, agricultural implements of all descriptions, tar, turpentine, pitch and rosin, and a great variety of other articles could be imported with advantage.

ALEX. JOURDAN,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Algiers, Africa, December 31, 1880.

OMAN: ITS COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES.

REPORT BY CONSUL MAGUIRE, OF MUSCAT.

[The following very interesting report is rendered doubly interesting by reason of its dealing with a district and people very imperfectly known to our commercial communities. Muscat, the capital of Oman, and the seat of the American consulate therein, is a most important trade emporium, and considered the commercial key to East Arabia and the Gulf of Persia. The trade of the United States therewith is insignificant, and it is to be hoped that this report will be the means of calling the attention of our importers and exporters to this portion of the globe, which has been so sadly neglected by them in this regard.—NOTE BY THE DEPARTMENT.]

AGRICULTURE.

The agricultural products of Oman are considerable, but limited in quantity, due to the unfavorable nature of the country for vegetation. The labor attending production is very considerable, as, owing to the small annual rain-fall, which seldom reaches six inches, the inhabitants have to supply artificial irrigation by means of wells and feliges. In the former case the water is drawn up from a considerable depth by means of a bullock and leather bucket, or bag, as seen in some parts of India, which, when emptied into a small reservoir at the surface, runs along the channels prepared for it to the section to be watered; when the section is changed the channel is dammed and another opened. This system prevails principally on the Batinah coast, whilst in other parts of Oman the "feleg" or conduit system, common to Persia, is to be met with, though generally a monopoly of the wealthy. The cultivated patches are usually some distance apart, and where wells can be sunk in the plains of the vicinity of Jebbel Akhdur, and in El-Dhahireh, the crops are more abundant, but extensively cultivated tracts

are unknown. The soil is exceedingly poor, hard and caked in appearance, resembling the dried mud-heaps which may be seen in other countries on the road-sides. One can hardly help wondering that it produces anything at all, more especially when experiencing the refreshing effect caused by unexpectedly coming on one of these green patches in the midst of sterile, burnt-up looking hills, and stony, sandy plains—the never-ceasing creaking of the pulleys at the wells indicating the care and labor that have been bestowed upon it.

The cereals, fruits and vegetables, &c., grown in Oman, in their respective seasons, are as follows:

Grain.—Wheat, white, red; jowaree, bajree, maize, barley.

Sugar-cane.—In small quantities only, from which a coarse kind of sugar is made.

Dates.—Of which there are at least forty different varieties, the farad being the best.

Mangoes, figs, vegetable marrow, bananas, sweet limes, lentils, grapes, apricots, brinjalls, peaches, tamarinds, bamia, mulberries, quinces, sweet potatoes, guavas, citron, onions, limes, oranges, radishes, custard apples, jujubes, cucumbers, almonds, plums, spinach, walnuts, papaye, kereyla, pomegranates, pumpkins, lucerne (for feeding cattle), apples, cotton (in small quantities only).

Of these the date is the most valuable, not only for home consumption, but also for export, the pick of the market being sent to the United States, principally in American bottoms. The trees are cultivated in every available spot suitable to their growth. Groves of them extend along the Batinah coast (200 miles long), principally of the kind known as the black or donkey date. The sea farads are also grown there, but, owing, it is supposed, to the sea air or saline nature of the soil, do not retain their color. This is not the case with the farads grown in the Ishmailee and Sharkeyah districts, which are the best, and command the American market; in fact it has been proved that no other description will stand the long sea voyage by sailing vessels. These are pressed into mat bags on the spot and brought into market on camels, when each bag is carefully cut, examined, weighed, and rebagged before shipment. The same dates, but not pressed, called nuther, are brought loosely in baskets from the interior, and after selection are packed in ten and fifty pound boxes, and find their way to the States principally by steamer. The Batinah or donkey dates are the cheapest kind, and form the staple food of the poorer classes of the inhabitants. A prolific date tree, under the most favorable circumstances, will produce from two to three hundred weight of dates in a season. Date stones when boiled down with fish heads, old date baskets, and other refuse, make a capital mess for cattle, and are much appreciated by them.

Pomegranates and limes are largely exported to India. Cultivation, however, not being extensive, the produce generally is inadequate to the wants of the people. Rice is not grown, and cereals only in a small degree. The rotation of crops is very imperfectly understood. The farm implements in use are plows, harrows, hoes, sickles, and threshing-machines, all of very primitive and rude form. The threshing is done sometimes with a light kind of flail, but generally a heavy log is drawn over the corn, and cattle are driven over it. Manuring is carried out to a comparatively small extent only. Fish and cattle litter are almost the only manures known.

Of animals the camel is extensively bred by the Bedouins, the highly-prized Oman dromedary sometimes fetching as much as $150. Cattle

which are small, and of the humped species common to India, are by no means scarce, though their flesh is not considered wholesome by the Arabs. They have to be fed in their paddocks, as there is no grazing to be found in the country. The bulls, which are usually well cared for, are worked at the irrigation wells already described, a steep inclined slope being dug out of the earth to give them increased power when hauling up the water. Donkeys are plentiful and mostly used for carrying goods over the almost inaccessible paths, &c., in the mountainous districts, for which purpose they are fitted with mat panniers of a secure pattern. There is a good demand for them at the Mauritius, to which place they are largely exported. Goats are numerous, and, with rice, dates, and fish, form the principal food of the inhabitants. Sheep are scarce and small, but have large woolly coats, and flat fatty tails, which make them look much larger than they really are. The flesh is sweet and savory. The trade in horses, for which Oman was celebrated, has fallen off of late years, but with encouragement and a regular demand might be revived. Unfortunately the number of these animals at present in the country is very small.

MANUFACTURES.

The manufactures and industries of Oman are rather insignificant, and with the exception of textile fabrics, kharak (dried dates), and salt fish, are only for home consumption. The most important industry is perhaps the preparation of dried dates, called by the Arabs bisir, which are largely exported to India, where, under the name of kharak, they are a necessary ingredient at certain Hindu festivities. The variety from which they are chiefly prepared is the mubsoli, but the khuneyzi is also sometimes employed. The process observed is as follows: the dates are picked before they are quite ripe and put into copper caldrons of boiling water, when they are allowed to simmer for half an hour, until a good deal of the juice is extracted; on being taken out they are put in the sun for two or three days and continually turned, until they are found to be quite dry and hard, when they are packed for export in mat bags. The house in which the boiling takes place generally contains 5 or 6 boilers of 4 or 5 gallons each, and has a chimney about 15 feet high to increase the draught. Some improvement has latterly been made in the process, and the bisir is produced at a slightly cheaper rate than formerly. As the water in the boilers extracts the juice, and decreases from evaporation, fresh water is added until it is too thick to be longer used, and it is then put aside to be fermented into liquor.

The earthenware used in Oman is almost exclusively made in the country. There are several potteries at Nakhl, Funja, Rostak, Saham, and Muttrah. Near Muscat the clay comes from Darset. The potter's wheel is much the same as in all ages and countries. They use a low horizontal wheel, on the center or axle of which a lump of wet clay is fashioned by the hand as the wheel spins. The pots are colored with Indian red and then burnt in a kiln. Toys, such as guns, animals, pipes, &c., are also made here of clay. The middle-sized vessels are sold at $2 per 100, of the kind that will stand fire and can be used as cooking pots. The porous water-vessels are supplied to Muscat, Semail, &c., from Nakhl, where the clay used is a bluish marl mixed with sand and brought from Musalmat, a village in the wady. These pots will not stand fire, but turn red on its application. The kalib is much the same as is used all over the East, but is somewhat different to that at Muttrah. Here there are two wheels, one above the other, the lower is called Raha, is turned by the foot, while on the other is placed the clay to be

molded. The coojahs are disposed of to the donkeymen at 90 pice per 100, and these sell them at Muttrah for $1.50 to $2 for 100, the risk of breakage being on the potters. The iron instrument used in shaping the pot is called mashal, and the comb used in marking it, basat.

Nezwa is noted for its manufacture of copper vessels, which are used all over the country. The copper is obtained from Bombay. The Nezwa manufactures are much sought for, and hardly a household in Oman is destitute of some Nezwa article. A peculiar-shaped bowl is also made here, and is the common drinking vessel of the country among those who cannot afford glass. At Jebbel, Akhdar, Zikki, &c., and other places beyond the range, it is noticeable that the women invariably carry water from the wells in copper basins instead of earthen vessels. This is due, no doubt, to the fact that the potteries are all to the southeast of the range, the risk and cost of carriage rendering the use of metal necessary.

Description.	Manufactured		Remarks.
	From—	Where—	
Colored turbans and loongies.	Silk and cotton	Muscat, Muttrah, and the Battinah Coast.	Worn by the Arabs, &c., and are largely exported to Yemen and Zanzibar. The loongee is a kind of skirt.*
Cameleens	Camel's and goat's hair.	Sharkeyah	A loose cloak worn by the Arabs called abba. The material is very strong and water-proof; they are sometimes embroidered with gold thread. The Oman stuff is inferior to that of Persia and Bahrein.*
Brown cloth	A brown cotton, called Khoodrang.	Oman and Mekran	Largely exported, and greatly worn and prized in the country.*
Coarse canvas (for sails).	Cotton	Battinah Coast	Partly exported to Yemen and Kutch (India).*
Earthenware	Clay	Many parts of Oman, principally the Nakhl range of hills.	The coojahs or vessels for cooling water come mostly from Nakhl, and are made from a blue clay marl mixed with sand. The best porous vessels, however, are imported from Bagdad.
Copper vessels	Copper sheet from Bombay.	Nezwa	Nezwa is famous for these vessels, and supplies nearly all Oman with them.
Fishing nets and lines.	Indian hemp from Bombay.	Coast towns	The hemp before being made up is soaked in the juice of a certain tree, whereby it is rendered very durable and water-proof.
Jewelry, gold and silver work (including ornamentation of swords, matchlocks, and jambeers or daggers).		Muscat principally, also in the interior, (matchlocks, swords, and dagger blades come from Persia.)	That made at Muscat by the Kutchees and Sindians (natives of India) is very superior and peculiar to the country. That of the interior is much inferior, and is made by an Arab tribe called "El Rumiheh."
Bisir (or dried dates)	Dates of the mubsoli and khuneyzi varieties.	Battinah, Nezwa, Nakhl, and all parts of the interior.	Largely exported to India where they are known under the name of kharak, and are an absolute necessity in certain Hindu festivities.
Hulwah	Wheat flour, sugar, ghee, eggs, and rose-water.	Muscat and Nezwa	A kind of rahallakoom. The black kind is said to come from Nezwa; large quantities are exported to India. It is highly prized by the Arabs and Europeans generally in India. The white is the best.

* The weavers principally belong to Muscat; some, however, come from the neighborhood of Sohar, and are chiefly the descendants of the old Persian conquerors and settlers.

THE CONDITION OF ITS MINES.

I am told that near a place called Semed there is a worked-out silver mine, as well as some old copper ones, but these have long ceased to attract attention. Lead and copper also were at one time obtained from the island of Masireh, on the southeast coast of Arabia, but doubtless the quality of the metals was not such as to pay the working expenses. This is the case in the neighborhood of Muscat, where the hills are very ferriferous. Of gold, I understand that none has been found.

ITS FISHERIES.

The Oman and adjacent waters abound with fish, of which there are many varieties, the principal being seer, bonita, ray, shark, sardines, sword and saw fish. Perhaps the most important industry in Oman, next to agriculture and the date cultivation, is its fisheries. Nearly the whole coast population are supported by it, and live upon fish, which are also exported in immense quantities as well as sent into the interior, where it is the chief flesh food consumed. Shark-fins come from Soor and South Arabian coasts, and are bought by the Khojas at Muttrah. Sharks are called gargoor, and the dried meat thereof, awal. The thin membranous part of the fins and tails are used by the Chinese, it is said, for making soup. The fleshy part is extensively used as date manure. Garbled fins are worth $1 per maund (8½ pounds), and ungarbled fins $4 per 6 maunds. Fish sounds are sent to England, via India, in large quantities, where they are used for clarifying beer, porter, &c.

At Muscat and some places in the Batinah the fishermen are generally Belooch and Persians, in other parts they are Arabs, but, though a successful and independent race, seem to be looked down on by the other Arabs. They are quite nomadic, and Oman may thus be said to have its Bedouins of the sea and desert. In the pilgrim months the fishermen go to Jedda to fish, being induced thereto by the high prices prevailing there at that time, and usually return with a respectable sum as the fruit of their labor. At another season they spread themselves along the Mekran coast, salting their takes on the spot, and returning after two or three months. In like manner, the Socotrans come hither about August and September, in buglas, with their families, and remain till the cold season; they use a catamaran consisting simply of four logs tied together. The nets used are the cast and seine, besides lines and trap baskets. The seine is used in a manner I have not observed elsewhere; the net is dropped round a shoal of fry or sardines; they then drive the fish from the center towards it by drumming or hammering on the sides of the boat, and by casting a stone into the water with a splash; the fish get frightened and entangle themselves in the meshes by their gills; the net is then gathered up into the boat; it is never drawn ashore; most of the fish, however, seem to escape by jumping over the net or forcing through it. Muscat harbor is literally alive with fish, more especially sardines, and great quantities are taken just under the town. Large shoals, when pursued by some big fish, may often be seen rushing towards the sides of vessels and jumping out of the water, churning it into foam, and making it appear as if it were boiling.

Great quantities of salt fish go to Bombay and the Malabar coast for consumption and for re-export to China, &c. Sword and saw fish are sometimes brought in, and numerous species of ray. At certain seasons some excellent soles are also caught, quite equal to the best. The curing is performed in a different way at Muscat to what it is on the

Mekran coast. The Oman salt-fish are called maleh, the Mekran cured fish being called keseyo; the latter is more offensive, and requires space for drying it in the sun. The nets on the Batinah coast are nearly a mile long and belong to a company. Sometimes they are the joint property of the whole village.

It is possible that were a company established in Muscat for salting and curing fish, a considerable profit might be made. The mode prevailing at present is of the most primitive kind, and must entail a good deal of waste.

The fishermen, when away on long expeditions, salt and preserve the fish themselves. Their boats are very lightly built, with high shelving sterns for hauling up on the beach, the prows also slightly shelving being to seaward.. They are skillfully handled and carry a large lofty kind of light lug-sail, which in a good breeze forces them through the water at a high speed; the lightest air at times is sufficient to send them along faster than a good row-boat could be pulled. They average from 5 to 10 tons, and will go a distance of 30 miles in four hours with a fair breeze. It is estimated that about 2,500 boats and 20,000 persons are employed in the Oman fisheries.

THE PRODUCTS OF ITS FORESTS.

There are no forests in Oman, the nearest approach to anything of the kind being the date groves, which are the principal trees of the country. They are useful beyond measure to the inhabitants, whom they supply with food, fuel, shelter, boats, matting rope, baskets, fodder, food for cattle, and a coarse kind of sugar. Liquor is also made from the date, besides numerous other things, even coffee.

ITS COMMERCE.

The accompanying returns Nos. 120, 127, 128, and 129 give the statistics of the trade and commerce of Muscat (including Muttrah), for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1881. It is impossible, however, to obtain reliable information respecting the imports, owing to the manner in which the books are kept at the custom house (the customs being farmed annually to the highest bidder, whose interest it is to show the smallest returns); the figures, therefore, must not in all cases be relied upon. No returns are obtainable from the other ports of the country. Soor and Sohar are the principal, but the Sultan is unable to levy taxes there. Of late years the trade and population of Muscat are declining, owing to the insecurity of the country from the raids occasionally made by the Bedouin tribes of the interior, the merchants not caring to keep large supplies of goods on hand, which would only be looted; as a consequence trade and commerce are seriously affected.

The customs for the current year were farmed for $110,000, which is the same amount as they were sold for the preceding year. During the twelve months ending June 30, 618 vessels (including native craft), of an aggregate of 156,690 tons, have visited the ports of Muscat and Muttrah. The imports amounted to $1,662,867, and the exports to $1,484,220. There is an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent. on the former, but none on the latter. There is a fair demand for American sheeting, kerosene oil, and flour. The sheeting (in 30-yard pieces) is classed by the native dealers with 8¼ pounds 39 inch by 40 yards gray shirtings of English makes, which it has virtually superseded. The bales containing an even number of yards in each piece are preferred to the uneven

ones. There is no doubt that, in addition to the particulars given in the reports (127 and 128), consignments of this article from Bombay, Aden, and Zanzibar find their way to the other Arabian and Persian Gulf ports by native craft, the statistics of which it is impossible to procure. Finding that flour imported in casks did not keep in this climate, the experiment was tried of importing it in 50-pound tins, which has succeeded admirably and commands a better market than any of the European kinds.

Muscat has no telegraph station; telegrams are posted *via* Kurrachee, Gwadur, or Jask. The British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers call fortnightly from and to India and the Persian Gulf ports, and convey the mails.

THE REVENUES, SEPARATING CUSTOMS FROM OTHER SOURCES.

The revenues of the Kingdom of Oman, which extends from Ras Mussendum (latitude 26° 24′ 13″ north; longitude 56° 31′ 50″ east) to Ras Resoot, near Dhofar (latitude 15° 56′ 30″ north; longitude 54° east), including the dependency of Gwadur, on the Beloochistan coast, may be estimated and divided as follows, viz:

Customs	$110,000
Zanzibar subsidy through the British Government	40,000
Crown lands	20,000
Miscellaneous	10,000
Total	180,000

The extent, however, of His Majesty's dominions in Arabia is practically limited by the distance at which he can enforce his authority, which in general is only from Ras Mussendum to Ras-al Had (latitude 22° 33′ north; longitude 59° 48′ east), and near the seacoast. His revenues are curtailed by the loss of Zanzibar, civil commotion, misrule, and a weak government. The minor ports on its seaboard have, of recent years, taken to making large imports by means of the native Arab craft, which do all the carrying work to these lesser ports; and, as these usually evade the customs duty leviable at all ports in the Muscat dominions, a considerable reduction in the imports of Muscat itself has resulted.

The exports from the interior are principally brought by caravans, and these concentrate at Muttrah, a town distant about two miles by sea, and brought thence by water to Muscat, which is the great emporium of commerce in these parts. By the same means the imports are conveyed back. Native craft bring in the produce of the more distant districts.

All supplies from the interior are sold to local merchants at Muscat and Muttrah. Original holders scarcely ever extend operations beyond dealings with those towns.

Cargo is landed in Muscat from steamers and vessels by means of cargo boats or buddens, carrying between ten and twelve tons dead weight. The supply of boats is scarcely sufficient for the trade of the port. When a strong wind is blowing it is with much difficulty and delay that boats can be taken from and to vessels, as they are propelled by oars, and are most unwieldy.

IMPORTANT MISCELLANEOUS SUBJECTS.

New commercial treaties.—None have been entered into during the tenure of my office.

Government.—The ruling families of Oman and Zanzibar belong to the tribe Al-boo-Saeedi, and the first of the present dynasty was Ahmed bin Sayeed, who was elected Imam in A. D. 1741. The Al-boo-Saeedis previous to that time had not held a prominent place in Oman politics; the Imam Ahmed was originally a camel driver, and came to the front by his energy and military talents in expelling the Persians from the country at a time when the then dynasty of the Yaarubeh Imams had disgusted the people by their profligacy and incapacity. The Imam Ahmed was succeeded by his son Saeed in A. D. 1775, who was dispossessed by his brother Sultan in 1797. Sultan was killed in 1804 and was followed by his two sons, Salim and Saeed, who ruled conjointly until 1821, when Salim died. Saeed ruled with great vigour and success, and latterly resided chiefly at Zanzibar. He made treaties with the United States, England, France, and Portugal, and was highly respected. He died at sea in October, 1856, and the kingdom was then divided under the arbitration of the Viceroy of India. He left twenty sons, of whom the third, Thoweynee, became Sultan of Muscat, and the sixth, Majid, became Sultan of Zanzibar.

Thoweynee was murdered in 1868 by his son Salim, who reigned for two years and was then expelled by his cousin, Azzan bin Kais, who was himself attacked and slain in January, 1871, by the present Sultan Toorkee, the fifth son of Saeed bin Sultan, who has since ruled Muscat uninterruptedly. Syeed Toorkee is consequently the eighth king of the present dynasty and is the great grandson of the first Imam Ahmed. He was born about the year 1834, and has three sons, Mahomed, Feysal, and Fahd.

Population.—The population of Muscat, the capital of Oman, is chiefly Arab, but there is besides a considerable foreign element, consisting of Banians and Khojas from Western India, Persians, Abyssinians, Somalis, and Nubians. The Arabs are divided into tribes, of which there are about 200, who muster some 150,000 fighting men. These tribes are ranged in two political factions, Hinawi and Ghaffiree, the former being the more numerous, and comprising chiefly the descendants of those who migrated into the country from Yemen; the ruling family or tribe belongs to this faction. The Ghaffirees are Ishmailite and emigrated from Nejd. They mostly occupy the country to the northwest. The Arabs employ themselves as agriculturists in the date cultivation. There are, however, a few predatory Bedouin tribes, who rear great numbers of camels, which are esteemed the finest in Arabia. The Persians occupy chiefly the coast towns, and are fishers and cloth-weavers. The total population of the kingdom of Oman may be about one million, viz, Arabs 750,000 and foreigners 250,000, that of Muscat and adjacent towns being about 40,000. These latter may be considered as places of considerable importance, in this part of the world, being the center of commerce and trade for the interior and surrounding countries.

The houses, as in most eastern cities, vary very much in size and importance, the larger and better kind being of the purely Arab type, solid walls and flat roofs. The walls of the upper rooms are studded with long narrow windows, in order that the air may have free access from every quarter. The ground floors are usually uninhabited, being used merely as go-downs or storerooms. In the warm weather the inhabitants sleep on the roofs of the houses, rendered necessary by the stifling heat.

The Bazaars, situated in some of the close narrow streets, are generally rudely roofed in for shade, at a height of about 18 feet, with ventilating holes at intervals for light and air. More attention, it may be

remarked, is paid to the prosecution of business in the rows of stalls than the appearance of the surroundings. The streets, however, are clean and carefully swept, each house accepting its responsibility in this particular. The people are well fed and have a certain turn for agriculture and trade, but there is a sluggish and indolent manner about them, common to Easterns generally, which is very trying to the more active-minded European, entailing, as it often does, delay and disappointment, when least desired. They are, however, especially the "darker" portion, generally of a lively disposition, and ready with a "salam" or "yambo" to strangers whom they meet in the streets. The Arab proper is, of course, very reserved, such being his custom; but he is far from being devoid of geniality and kindness. Some indeed are polished courtiers.

Coinage.—Oman has no independent coinage, the East India rupee and (Austrian) Maria Theresa dollar being the current coins of the country. The latter is equal to about 2 rupees, 2 annas, and the fractional parts of the rupee serve for the purpose of "small change"; as may be supposed, large quantities of pice (fourth part of an anna) have annually to be imported from India. The dollar has been, and is in many parts now, the favorite coin, but the use of the rupee is becoming more general, and will finally take its place. The Maria Theresa dollar is equal to about 84 cents American.

Price of food and labor.—Food is abundant and easily obtained, though, owing to free labor becoming more general, the cost of labor is steadily increasing. The principle articles of food amongst the natives are rice, fish, dates, wheat, jowaree, bread, fowls, and fresh meat; the poor classes, however, hardly ever eat meat, as they cannot afford it. The supply of all these being plentiful, prices are necessarily reasonable, though somewhat variable. The supply of drinking water is good.

Emigration.—The Arab, though of nomadic habits in his native country, is not usually given to emigration; laterly, however, owing to the raids which have been made from the interior, and as a consequence the general insecurity which prevails, as many as 1,000 Arab families have been said to have migrated to the more secure and prosperous dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar.

Climate.—The climate of Muscat has been described as "extreme and equable." The solar thermometer ranges from about 145° Fahr. in January to about 198° Fahr. in September, whilst the temperature in the shade has been known to vary as much as from 58° Fahr. to 105° Fahr. The rainfall is extremely scanty, averaging about 6 inches; it usually falls about July (slightly) and from November to February. Heavy dews are sometimes experienced. December, January, and February are the coolest months in the year, and May, June, and July the hottest. The dry hot land winds (west and northwest) prevail mostly in May and June, and are esteemed by the natives for their ripening influence on the dates, but they can only be likened to the blast of a furnace, a sense of relief being instantly felt when the wind shifts occasionally to the southeast (moist). May and June, however, are said to be the healthy months, whilst the reverse obtains in the cool season, owing to the prevalence of fevers.

Sanitation and disease.—The system of sanitation is of the most primitive kind. Inside the walls of Muscat in many houses cesspools and pits are used, whilst in the outskirts the excreta is cast clear of the huts, and, being rapidly dried by the great heat of the sun, does not seem to affect the health of the people in any way. The cesspools are frequently disinfected by the use of salt, lime, ashes, and other simple disinfectants easily procurable.

The prevailing diseases among the native population in Muscat and the adjoining towns and villages are, fever of a very mild malarial type, ague, consumption in its various forms, muscular rheumatism, bronchitis, dyspepsia, colic, diarrhœa, eye diseases, and ulcers. The more fatal diseases, such as cholera, small pox, and measles, have occurred in an epidemic form at long intervals, but the plague has never been known. The place has always been singularly free from venereal disease.

Geology.—The following extract from Dr. Henry J. Carter's work, Geological Papers on Western India (1857), will doubtless prove interesting in a geological point of view:

Muscat, as we approach it from the sea, is characterized by a group of dark-colored rocks, whose peaks become more and more visible as we near them, until one, more prominent and larger than the rest, points out the position of the town itself. As soon as this peak is recognized, there remains no doubt of the course to be pursued, and presently we find ourselves in a deep narrow bay, a mile long and half a mile broad, running parallel to the coast and opening to the NNW.

Nothing can be more picturesque than this bay, its green water, the dark color of its rocks, their innumerable peaks, the white towers at the bottom, and the white castles at its entrance; all of which are so completely hidden from the sea that their existence is hardly known until we are within cross-fire of the two outermost batteries.

These dark rocks occupy an area of about ten miles long and three miles broad, and are chiefly composed of serpentine (Euphotide, Brong?), which is limited on the coast and inland by a yellow-colored limestone formation. Their ridges and summits are sharp and peaked, and seldom exceed 400 feet in height, and their sides and valleys soilless and barren. At their northern part they are mixed with diorite, and at this point also potstone (steatite) exists, which is sufficiently yielding to allow of its being molded into shape for pottery.

The serpentine is, for the most part, of a dark brown color, and more or less charged with small laminated crystals of *diallage chatoyante*. When taken from a depth it is tough and not easily broken, but on the surface crumbles and breaks into rectangular fragments, the sides of which are more or less coated with green and variegated nephritic serpentine, steatite, or calcareous spar. In some parts it is of a light brown color and earthy, while in others it is darker and more compact or crystalline, presenting in the fracture when broken the appearance of dark-colored bees-wax. It is exactly the same as that of the Lizard Point in Cornwall, with the exception, perhaps, of the presence of green diallage, which, if existing in the serpentine of Muscat, is of a much duller color than that in the serpentine of the Lizard.

Everywhere these serpentine rocks at their circumference are bounded and overlapped by the yellow limestone formation mentioned, which, like them, is also barren and contrasts strongly in point of color, form, and stratification.

A more extended examination of this serpentine would of course enable me to write more about it, but this I was unable to effect, and, had I done so, the character of the rock, its variety of form, structure, and composition, are points now so well known, that such information of the serpentine of Muscat, if I gave it, would probably be only a repetition of what has already been much better described.

The editor of the Times of India, Mr. Grattan Geary, in his work Through Asiatic Turkey, says:

The little town of Muttrah, situated on the coast about a mile and a half to the west of Muscat, is visible before anything can be seen of the capital itself. The cove of Muscat is entered from the north, and until the steamer rounds the point of the Gibraltar-like rock which forms one of the sides of the harbor, it is difficult to imagine that there is a considerable city hidden somewhere in the midst of the inhospitable cliffs. The rugged volcanic hills which surround the little harbor are as bare of vegetation as Aden itself. They are four or five hundred feet high, of irregular outline, and quite precipitous. Two imposing forts occupy opposite points commanding the harbor and the town, and along the heights at intervals are towers of unusual height. The place could be easily made impregnable, but the harbor is not large, being little more than a quarter of a mile from east to west, and less than half a mile from north to south. It is completely open to the north. During the northwest monsoon the sea comes in with great fury, and though the anchorage is good, the bottom rising gradually towards the rocky shore, ships usually prefer to clear out rather than try the strength of their cables. There is a depth of from fifteen to thirty fathoms throughout, and the harbor is perfectly sheltered from every wind except that from the north or northwest. The amphitheater of hills which gives this shelter on three sides, allows a cramped space at the head of the harbor for the town of Muscat.

Wild animals and birds.—The wild animals of Oman are wolves, jackals, foxes, wild-cats, marmots, leopards, hyenas, oryxes, ibexes, hares, gazelles, date rats, hedgehogs, &c.

The birds are hawks, sparrows, kites, vultures, blue jays, crows, kingfishers, plovers, falcons, eagles, partridges, quails, sand-grouse, sunbirds, bee-eaters, thrushes, bulbuls, owls, curlews, herons, shrikes, neophrons, sea-gulls, terns, cormorants, &c.

PORT REGULATIONS.

From Toorkee bin Said to whomsoever it may concern:

For the better security of property and for the preservation from loss (or damages) to the same, we hereby prohibit goods being landed here from any steamer, ship, or boat during the night-time unless in the case of urgent need.

This does not apply to the property of foreign governments.

Let this not remain concealed from you.

Dated Muscat, 7th Jemadi-el-Awal, 1298 (April 7, 1881).

Slave traffic.—At one time this traffic was a source of considerable profit to the Arabs, it being computed that as many as 13,000 souls were annually imported into Arabia and adjacent countries. Since 1873, however, there has been a great change in this respect owing to the treaties, that year entered into, between her Britannic Majesty and the Sultans of Muscat and Zanzibar, the former, his Majesty Syud Toorkee, having, doubtless, in consideration of his large subsidy, decreed that all slaves landing in his dominions on and after the 14th April, 1873, should be free. It is generally known also that in cases of bad treatment on the part of their masters, the slaves imported prior to 1873, on appealing to the British authorities, will be freed, and many, especially in Muscat and the neighborhood, are now yearly liberated. They are brought to his Majesty, who causes their names to be registered in a book kept for the purpose, after which no one can claim them. Slaves are, however, still secretly imported in small numbers, mostly by twos and threes at a time, but in such a cunning manner as often to mislead her Britannic Majesty's cruisers, notwithstanding a strict search, &c. The price of labor has, in consequence of this gradual change, greatly increased, and may be expected to do so still more.

LOUIS H. MAGUIRE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Muscat, August 1, 1881.

Statement showing the imports at Muscat, Arabia, for the year ending June 30, 1881.

Description.	Quantity.	Value entered.	Amount of duties.	Countries whence imported.
Kerosene oil.....cases..	3,990	$6,400	5 per cent. ad val.	United States of America.
Flour.....do ...	200	1,170	....do	Do.
American sheeting .....bales..	388	33,582	....do	India.
Barley .....bags..	2,830	5,000	....do	Do.
Rice:				
Bengal .....bags..	143,800	503,340	....do	Do.
Malabar.....mooras..	300	800	....do	Do.
Red .....bags..	350	1,300	....do	Do.
Wheat .....do....	13,500	40,000	....do	Do.
Bajree.....do....	400	1,200	....do	Do.
Jowaree.....do....	12,000	24,000	....do	Do.
Dall.....do....	900	3,000	....do	Do.
Sugar .....do....	5,000	58,000	....do	Do.
Sugar candy ....do....	115	1,300	....do	Do.

Statement showing the imports at Muscat, Arabia, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value entered.	Amount of duties.	Countries whence imported.
Jagree ..... pots..	40	$180	5 per cent. ad val .	India.
Coffee ..... bags..	2,415	31,500	....do	Do.
Pepper ..... do....	570	7,000	....do	Do.
Turmeric ..... do....	400	1,550	....do	Do.
Cardamons ..... do....	24	3,000	....do	Do.
Cinnamon ..... do ...	550	3,490	....do	Do.
Ginger, dry ..... mooras..	35	300	....do	Do.
Nutmegs ..... bags..	8	200	....do	Do.
Betel-nuts ..... do....	50	750	....do	Do.
Coacoa-nuts, fresh ..... do....	1,200	190	....do	Do.
dry ..... do ..	40	400	....do	Do.
Tamarinds ..... baskets..	500	1,400	....do	Do.
Monkey-nuts ..... bags..	800	1,150	....do	Do.
Musk ..... bottles..	45	3,500	....do	Do.
Aloes-wood ..... boxes..	8	3,000	....do	Do.
Frankincense ..... do....	120	2,890	....do	Do.
Sandal-wood chips ..... kandies..	25	1,500	....do	Do.
Camphor ..... boxes..	20	380	....do	Do.
Goorakeoo ..... pipes..	150	600	....do	Do.
Cotton, damaged ..... bales..	650	2,500	....do	Do.
Stuff ..... do....	1,000	140,000	....do	Do.
Cloth, blue ..... do....	300	23,000	....do	Do.
Turkey red ..... boxes..	15	1,875	....do	Do.
Handkerchiefs, colored ..... do....	15	2,250	....do	Do.
Chintzes ..... do....	150	3,000	....do	Do.
Twist ..... do....	953	76,240	....do	Do.
Sewing-cotton ..... say..		600	....do	Do.
Broadcloth ..... bales..	10	1,000	....do	Do.
Shawls and loongies ..... number..	60	1,120	....do	Do.
Silk ..... bales..	25	10,000	....do	Do.
Silk goods ..... do....	45	9,500	....do	Do.
Gold thread ..... tholas..	2,500	18,500	....do	Do.
Hemp ..... coils..	1,050	4,500	....do	Do.
Twine ..... bundles..	18	120	....do	Do.
Gunnies ..... bales..	35	1,170	....do	Do.
Rope (coir) ..... kandies..	80	1,500	....do	Do.
Copper ..... pieces..	1,450	11,360	....do	Do,
Tin and lead ..... do....	700	5,000	....do	Do.
Steel ..... casks..	60	300	....do	Do.
Brass ..... pieces..	150	500	....do	Do.
Ironware ..... say..	.....	2,500	....do	Do.
Dyes ..... kegs..	30	240	....do	Do.
Oil (sweet) ..... casks..	5,300	70,000	....do	Do.
Candles ..... boxes..	150	600	....do	Do.
Oil seeds ..... kandies..	7	240	....do	Do.
Gauja (flaxseeds) ..... bags..	55	660	....do	Do.
Sulphur ..... casks	320	6,400	....do	Do.
Lucifer-matches ..... boxes..	40	700	....do	Do.
Fireworks ..... do....	45	270	....do	Do.
Surrungee ..... bags..	6	200	....do	Do.
Saffron ..... boxes..	13	2,000	....do	Do.
Alum ..... casks..	10	135	....do	Do.
Wood	.....	2,000	....do	Do.
Wines, spirits, and malt liquors	.....	3,400	....do	Do.
Paper ..... boxes..	50	2,000	....do	Do.
Delf	.....	5,500	....do	Do.
Soda ..... baskets..	150	450	....do	Do.
Grain ..... bags..	400	800	....do	Do.
Ghee ..... dubbas and boxes..	900	18,000	....do	Do.
Cummin seed ..... bags..	1,100	11,000	....do	Do.
Coriander seed ..... do....	615	1,000	....do	Do.
Garlic ..... do....	90	160	....do	Do.
Sal ammoniac ..... pipes..	5	100	....do	Do.
Hyacinth ..... bales..	15	100	....do	Do.
Borax ..... pipes..	5	50	....do	Do.
Caraway seeds ..... bags..	5	40	....do	Do.
Hides ..... scores..	40	1,800	....do	Do.
Pewterware ..... pieces..	25	500	....do	Do.
Tallow ..... skins..	25	500	....do	Do.
Boxes (empty) deal wood number..	700	200	....do	Do.
Miscellaneous articles (such as preserved provisions oilman s stores and cutlery) ..... say..	.....	30,500	....do	Do.
Dates:				
Pressed ..... bags..	4,000	8,000	....do	Persian Gulf, Busreh.
Dry ..... do....	1,650	9,000	....do	and Mekran coast.
French beans ..... do....	440	1,620	....do	Do.
Ghee ..... skins..	80	1,560	....do	Do.
Almonds ..... bags..	125	1,000	....do	Do.
Walnuts ..... do....	40	200	....do	Do.
Pestachio nuts ..... do....	25	400	....do	Do.

Statement showing the imports at Muscat, Arabia, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value entered.	Amount of duties.	Countries whence imported.
Figs ..... bags..	6	$30	5 per cent. ad val..	Persian Gulf, Busreh, and Mekran coast.
Plums ..... do....	650	3,750	... do	Do.
Raisins ..... do....	9	55	....do	Do.
Cotton ..... bales..	2,000	15,150	....do	Do.
Carpets and rugs ..... do....	20	1,000	....do	Do.
Silk, raw ..... do....	25	6,000	....do	Do.
Silk goods ..... do....	25	5,000	....do	Do.
Skins ..... scores..	100	1,200	....do	Do.
Goat's hair ..... bags..	500	4,000	....do	Do.
Salt ..... loads..	10,200	18,100	....do	Do.
Red ocher ..... do....	200	400	....do	Do.
Saltpeter ..... pots..	200	1,000	....do	Do.
Lime, gutch ..... loads..	450	675	....do	Do.
Assafœtida ..... skins..	6	200	....do	Do.
Madder ..... bags..	60	500	....do	Do.
Myrtle leaves ..... do....	900	2,700	....do	Do.
Millet seed ..... do....	25	500	....do	Do.
Rose-water ....karbas and boxes..	900	1,515	....do	Do.
Roses, dry ..... bags..	615	2,150	....do	Do.
Pomegranate skins ..... do....	40	140	....do	Do.
Pearls ..... say..	.....	62,000	....do	Do.
Mother o' pearl ..... bags..	350	11,350	....do	Do.
Budr bud ..... do....	1,180	4,000	....do	Do.
Opium ..... boxes..	6	4,800	....do	Do.
Reed peces ..... bundles..	25	450	....do	Do.
Mat bags ..... number..	151,000	9,020	....do	Do.
Jeerah, coriander seed ..... bags..	260	3,000	....do	Do.
Saffron ..... boxes..	7	1,000	....do	Do.
Grain ..... bags..	300	1,500	....do	Do.
Vinegar ..... karbas..	40	40	....do	Do.
Tobacco ..... bags..	800	2,450	....do	Do.
Cloaks ..... scores..	7	480	....do	Do.
Hair combs ..... packages..	30	300	....do	Do.
Wool ..... bags..	330	4,500	....do	Do.
Twist ..... do....	230	2,900	....do	Do.
Cowries ..... bags..	200	$400	....do	Do.
Shark fins and fish maws	.....	4,000	....do	Do.
Fish sounds	.....	550	....do	Do.
Miscellaneous articles (such as matting, raw cotton, chemicals, &c.).	.....	3,800	....do	Do.
Coffee ..... bags..	300	6,000	....do	South Arabia and Africa.
Sugar (loaf) ..... boxes..	30	600	....do	Do.
Jowaree ..... kandies..	20	400	....do	Do.
Cocoanuts	100,000	1,700	....do	Do.
Monkey nuts ..... bags..	250	440	....do	Do.
Paper ..... boxes..	42	1,200	....do	Do.
Cloves ..... bags..	127	4,500	....do	Do.
Wood (rafters) ..... scores..	200	900	....do	Do.
Toweling pieces ..... boxes..	15	1,150	....do	Do.
Frankincense ..... bags..	140	750	....do	Do.
Antimony ..... do....	20	250	....do	Do.
Ambergris ..... boxes..	8	1,000	....do	Do.
Civet ..... scores..	15	700	....do	Do.
Dragon's blood ..... pots..	40	750	....do	Do.
Arabian gum (mukul) ..... bags..	25	250	....do	Do.
Wild Cyprus seed ..... do....	680	23,150	....do	Do.
Otto of roses ..... bottles..	400	400	....do	Do.
Shurma ..... bags..	100	400	....do	Do.
Gum ..... do....	12	180	....do	Do.
Senna leaves ..... do....	110	260	....do	Do.
Aloes ..... skins..	600	3,500	....do	Do.
Fish oil ..... say..	.....	2,000	....do	Do.
Cowries ..... bags..	2,000	7,000	....do	Do.
Oil (kerosine) ..... boxes..	560	11,000	....do	Do.
Clocks ..... number..	60	250	....do	Do.
Cotton ..... bales..	120	1,150	....do	Do.
Hides ..... scores..	15	150	....do	Do.
Ebony ..... do....	12	200	....do	Do.
Razors ..... cases..	5	250	....do	Do.
Fezes (red caps) ..... scores..	125	500	....do	Do.
Candles ..... boxes..	60	250	....do	Do.
Miscellaneous articles (such as rafters, wood for native craft, empty boxes, &c.).	.....	3,100	....do	Do.
Planks ..... scores..	150	1,000	....do	Singapore and Mauritius.
Rafters ..... do....	50	250	....do	Do.
Timber ..... do....	5	200	....do	Do.

Statement showing the imports at Muscat, Arabia, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value entered.	Amount of duties.	Countries whence imported.
Sugar ..... bags..	400	$6,000	5 per cent. ad val..	Singapore and Mauritius.
Benzoin ..... boxes..	50	1,000	....do	Do.
Ginger, dry ..... mooras..	25	200	....do	Do.
Crockery	.....	350	....do	Do.
Total	.....	1,593,867	.....	
Specie	.....	159,000	.....	The foregoing countries.
Grand total	.....	1,662,867	.....	

Statement showing the exports from Muscat, Arabia, for the year ending June 30, 1881.

Description.	Quantity.	Value including costs and charges.	Countries whither exported.
Fard dates ..... boxes..	4,768	$14,600	United States of America.
Do ..... bags..	21,794	86,915	Do.
Dates:			
Pressed of sorts ..... bags..	77,000	261,485	India and Yemen.
Dry ..... do...	75,000	450,000	India.
Black ..... do...	15,000	2,500	Do.
Date juice ..... dubbas..	400	1,200	Do.
Fruits ..... do...	400	20,000	Do.
Dried limes ..... bags..	1,100	14,500	Persian Gulf.
Raisins ..... do...	650	3,800	Yemen and India.
Plums ..... do...	6	50	India.
Almonds ..... do...	120	960	Do.
Walnuts ..... do...	50	250	Do.
Tamarinds ..... baskets..	400	1,200	Persian Gulf and Busreh.
Fish:			
Dried ..... number..	1,400	2,500	India and Mauritius.
Small for manure ..... bags..	500	3,000	India.
Sounds ..... do...	120	2,000	Do.
Shark fins ..... do...	120	4,500	Do.
Pearls ..... say..	.....	60,000	Do.
Mother o' pearl ..... bags..	300	10,250	Do.
Cotton ..... bales..	360	9,000	Do.
Cotton fabrics ..... boxes..	300	150,000	Zanzibar.
Cotton seeds ..... bags..	900	1,900	India.
Rose leaves ..... do...	500	1,800	Yemen.
Rose water ..... karbas..	760	1,600	India, Zanzibar, and Singapore.
Pomegranate skins ..... bales..	25	100	India.
Henna ..... bags..	180	900	Persian Gulf and Busreh.
Opium ..... boxes..	4	3,400	Zanzibar.
Wheat ..... bags..	800	3,000	Persian Gulf and Busreh.
Rice ..... do...	3,000	10,000	Do.
Jowaree ..... kandies..	900	15,000	Mekran coast.
Barley ..... bags..	1,200	2,500	Busreh and Mekran coast.
Ghee ..... dubbas..	120	2,600	Singapore and Mauritius.
Sugar ..... bags..	1,000	18,000	Yemen.
Salt ..... loads..	12,000	24,000	India, Zanzibar, and Singapore.
Red ocher ..... do...	300	600	India.
Sulphur ..... say..	.....	1,200	Busreh and Persian Gulf.
Madder ..... bags..	50	400	India.
Assafœtida ..... do...	5	200	Do.
Garlic ..... do...	120	600	Zanzibar.
Musk ..... bottles..	20	1,000	Persian Gulf.
Aloes-wood ..... boxes..	4	1,400	Do.
Incense ..... bags..	80	480	Do.
Shunna ..... bales..	75	300	Do.
Aloes ..... skins..	600	3,500	India.
Senna leaves ..... bags..	80	200	India and Persia.
Dragon's blood ..... pots..	30	600	India.
Budr bud ..... bales..	1,000	4,000	Yemen.
Reed pens ..... bundles..	26	520	India.
Goat's hair ..... bales..	350	4,660	Busreh.
Cowries ..... bags..	2,500	7,500	India.
Hulwa ..... say..	.....	10,000	Do.
Otto of roses ..... say..	.....	1,200	Do.
Canvas (Arabian) ..... bolts..	1,200	4,800	Yemen and Kutch.
Rafters ..... scores..	80	400	Persian Gulf and Busreh.
Planks ..... do....	80	6,400	Do.

Statement showing the exports from Muscat, Arabia, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value including costs and charges.	Countries whither exported.
Donkeys.....number..	220	$1,400	Mauritius and India.
Kerosene oil.....boxes..	4,000	8,000	Persian Gulf and Busreh.
Cloves.....bags..	1,500	5,200	India.
American sheeting.....bales..	200	12,600	Persian Gulf.
Wool.....do..	110	4,400	India.
Rifles.....cases..	30	2,000	Persian Gulf.
Ebony.....scores..	35	650	India.
Papers.....boxes..	18	500	Persian Gulf.
Mat bags.....bundles..	1,000	2,000	India.
Total.....	.....	1,273,220	
Specie.....	.....	211,000	
Grand total.....	.....	1,484,220	India, Yemen, and Persian Gulf.

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Muscat, Arabia, for the year ending June 30, 1881.

Flag.	From or to—	ENTERED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
American	Bombay	.....	.....	2	2,162	2	2,162
	New York	.....	.....	1	662	1	662
French	Calcutta	.....	.....	1	425	1	425
	Reunion to Penang	.....	.....	1	392	1	392
	Marseilles to Busreh	1	600	.....	.....	1	600
British	Mauritius	.....	.....	1	996	1	996
	India	26	28,000	1	351	27	28,351
	Persian Gulf	52	57,000	.....	.....	52	57,000
	Cardiff to Kurrachee	1	966	.....	.....	1	966
	Cardiff to Bassein	.....	.....	1	1,640	1	1,640
	Busreh to Jeddah	2	3,430	.....	.....	2	3,430
	Bushire to Jeddah	1	1,666	.....	.....	1	1,666
Arab	Calcutta	.....	.....	8	7,500	8	7,500
Native craft (estimated).	India	.....	.....	200	18,000	200	18,000
	Persian Gulf	.....	.....	180	15,000	180	15,000
	Zanzibar	.....	.....	25	.....	25	1,700
	Yemen	.....	.....	35	3,200	35	3,200
	Mekran	.....	.....	70	2,500	70	2,500
Ships of war:							
Japanese	Bombay to Singapore	1	2,000	.....	.....	1	2,000
French	Bombay to Aden	1	2,000	.....	.....	1	2,000
British	India and Persian Gulf	6	6,400	.....	.....	6	6,400
Arab	Muscat	1	100	.....	.....	1	100
Totals	.....	92	102,162	526	54,528	618	156,690

Flag.	From or to—	CLEARED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
American	Bombay	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	New York	.....	.....	3	2,824	3	2,824
French	Calcutta	.....	.....	1	425	1	425
	Reunion to Penang	.....	.....	1	392	1	392
	Marseilles to Busreh	1	600	.....	.....	1	600
British	Mauritius	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	India	52	57,000	2	1,347	54	58,347
	Persian Gulf	26	28,000	.....	.....	26	28,000
	Cardiff to Kurrachee	1	966	.....	.....	1	966
	Cardiff to Bassein	.....	.....	1	1,640	1	1,640

Statement showing the navigation at Muscat, Arabia, &c.—Continued.

Flag.	From or to—	CLEARED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	Busreh to Jeddah	2	3,430	.....	.....	2	3,430
	Bushire to Jeddah	1	1,666	.....	.....	1	1,666
Arab	Calcutta	.....	.....	8	7,500	8	7,500
Native craft (estimated).	India	.....	.....	200	18,000	200	18,000
	Persian Gulf	.....	.....	180	15,000	180	15,000
	Zanzibar	.....	.....	25	1,700	25	1,700
	Yemen	.....	.....	35	3,200	35	3,200
	Mekran	.....	.....	70	2,500	70	2,500
Ships of war:							
Japanese	Bombay to Singapore	1	2,000	.....	.....	1	2,000
French	Bombay to Aden	1	2,000	.....	.....	1	2,000
British	India and Persian Gulf	6	6,400	.....	.....	6	6,400
Arab	Muscat	1	100	.....	.....	1	100
Totals		92	102,162	526	54,523	618	156,690

Statement showing the imports and exports between Muscat, Arabia and the United States for the year 1880–'81.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
Kerosene oil ..... cases	3,990	$6,400	.....	.....
Flour ..... do	200	1,170	.....	.....
Sheeting ..... bales	388	23,582	.....	.....
Dates ..... boxes	.....	.....	4,768	$101,515
Do ..... bags	.....	.....	21,794	
Total	.....	31,152	.....	101,515

THE SALT PRODUCTION OF RUSSIA.

A REPORT BY J. V. BOCK, PUBLISHED IN THE RUSSIAN REVIEW IN ST. PETERSBURG, AND TRANSLATED AND FORWARDED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE BY CONSUL-GENERAL STANTON.

Herewith I have the honor to submit a translation, in an abridged form, of a report by J. V. Bock, which was published in this city in the ninth volume of the Russian Review.

It will be seen that notwithstanding her immense wealth in salt, Russia annually imports from 25 to 30 per cent. of the amount she consumes. This has been caused heretofore by a high excise duty and the remoteness of most of the mines from settled districts.

The former obstacle was removed at the beginning of the present year, and will doubtless exercise a most beneficial influence on this industry; the latter will naturally only be removed in a remote future, if ever.

The varying value thereof prevents my giving, as intended, the American equivalent of the rouble whenever the price of salt is mentioned.

The pood equals 36.4 pounds English.

EDGAR STANTON,
Consul-General.

[Translation.]

PRODUCTION OF SALT IN RUSSIA DURING THE YEARS 1860–1876.

Salt, cooking salt (chlornatrium), is found in Russia, as rock-salt, in salt springs, salt lakes and steppes, in such quantities as would suffice for the requirements of the whole empire and leave a large balance for exportation.

Nevertheless, many portions of the empire suffer from a lack of salt. This arises from the fact that salt is found, principally, in districts remote from the centers of population, and also to the tax, which was abrogated in 1881, and which in certain instances amounted to 31 kopecks* per pood of salt. In consequence hereof many districts of Russia are supplied altogether with foreign salt, which, notwithstanding a duty of from 20 to 38 kopecks per pood, competes successfully with the Russian article in the northern and western portions of the empire.

I.—Rock-salt.

Rock-salt is obtained in Russia in six different districts, viz, in the Iletskian and in the province of Orenburg, near the town of Iletski, 70 versts from the city of Orenburg; the Tschiptschatschian in the Yenotayefska in district of the government of Astrachan; the Kulpinian, the Nachitschefanian, and the Sustinian works, which are all three in the Transcaucasian province of Erivan; and in the district of Tokmak in Turkistan.

The Iletskian mine is the most important, and has been worked since the beginning of the previous century. The dimensions of this salt bed are as yet unknown. It has been discovered to extend three versts in length, and has been bored to a depth of 476 feet without its limits having been reached. It lies in the Trias system, and is covered with from 3 to 10 fathoms of clayey sand.

The government began to work this mine in 1754, and continued working it until 1867, convict labor being at first employed, and then that of impressed peasants, and finally free labor in 1863.

In 1868 the mine was divided into three parts and let out to private persons. The yearly yield is about 1,000,000 poods, the largest being that of 1868, when 2,436,355 poods were taken out.

This mine supplies th eprovinces Samara, Ufa, and Orenburg, and a small amount finds its way to other provinces. The selling price is about 90 kopecks. The excise duty, which is now removed, used to be 23 kopecks per pood.

Next comes the Tschiptschatschian mine, in the province of Astrachan. The hill of Tschiptschatschi rises about 70 feet above the steppe; it is 3 versts long by 2½ wide. The salt is found in the Trias system in strata of not less than 3 fathoms thickness, which crop out in many places.

The mine was worked by the Russians as early as the beginning of the sixteenth century, but the advance of the Kalmucks in the seventeenth century interrupted the work, which was only renewed in 1863. It is now worked by private parties, who have heretofore paid an excise duty of 25 kopecks (12½ cents) per pood. The annual yield is about 1,000,000 poods, the price being about 39 kopecks per pood.

Then follow the Kulpinian, the Nachitscheranian, and the Sustinian mines, all of which are in the province of Erivan. The first lies on the right bank of the Araxes, not far from the frontier of Asiatic Turkey; the second on the left bank, not far from the town of Nachitscheran. These two mines are worked for government account and yield about 1,000,000 poods. They supply Transcaucasia alone, and the price reaches 53 kopecks per pood.

The third, the Sustinian mine, is worked by private parties, and yields about 41,000 poods annually.

Finally, rock-salt is found in Turkestan on the borders of the river Nawrussu. Reliable figures are lacking, but the yield will hardly exceed one million poods annually, all of which is consumed in Turkestan.

II.—Salt springs.

Salt is obtained from springs and wells in the following governments, viz:

In the province of Archangel, in the Nenokskian, Uuskian, and Tudskian works in the district of Archangel, and in the Kulios, Kulioskian, Peneshkian, and Vladitschinskian works in the Onega district.

The Wenokskian works were erected at the time of the first appearance of the Russians in Archangel, the others at the beginning of the present century. In all salt is obtained by evaporating the brine, which is procured from springs or artesian wells, the latter having often a depth of 200 meters. The strength of the brine varies from 2° to 10° Baumé.

* One hundred kopecks equal 65.8 cents.

Besides the foregoing, there are about 25 other and smaller works scattered along the coast of the White Sea, or a distance of about 216 versts. Salt is obtained in all of these works by evaporation of sea-water.

The salt obtained in the province of Archangel belongs to private parties, supplies local wants, and up to 1881 paid an excise duty of 10 kopecks per pood. The annual yield varies from 60,000 to 120,000 poods.

In the province of Volodga there are three salt-works, viz, the Totma, the Ledeng, and Lengoff works, the two former being in the vicinity of the city of Totma, and the latter on the banks of the Vymi, in the district of Yaransk. The annual yield is about 400,000 poods; is sold for as much as 100 kopecks and paid till 1881 an excise duty of 20 kopecks (10 cents) per pood. In the province of Perm salt has been obtained on the banks of the Kama since the beginning of the fifteenth century, but this industry first obtained importance in the middle of the sixteenth century, when Ivan the Fourth, the Terrible, presented the territory bordering the river Kama, from the Lyson to the Tschussovaya, to the Strogonoffs.

In the last half of the eighteenth century almost all the salt-works in the province of Perm belonged to the Strogonoffs, who sent their salt to Nizhnii-Novgorod, whence it was shipped all over Russia.

The brine comes from rock-salt deposits, and is found at a depth of from 80 to 200 meters. It is pumped from artesian wells, and collected into reservoirs. Evaporation is carried on from June until April, and it costs from 8 to 12 kopecks to produce a pood of salt. The annual yield is about eleven million poods. As before stated, it is sold nearly all over Russia for from 43 to 75 kopecks per pood, the excise duty being, until 1881, 30 kopecks.

In the province of Nizhnii-Novgorod, on the right bank of the Volga, in the town of Balachna, are salt-works which have been in operation some three hundred years. Owing to the weakness of the brine (3° Baumé) the production is small, having never exceeded 200,000 poods. The province of Novgorod possesses salt-works which were in operation in 1470. The brine is, however, weak (6° Baumé), and the production unimportant.

In the province of Charkoff salt-works were erected in the town of Slavyansk at the beginning of the seventeenth century. In 1780 new ones were erected in the vicinity, but in consequence of the destruction of the neighboring forests the production, which in the preceding century was annually 400,000 poods, diminished rapidly, and in 1782 work was altogether stopped.

In 1790, in consequence of the discovery of coal in the vicinity, the government made experiments in the evaporation of salt with that fuel, which utterly failed. In 1832, under private enterprise, this industry began to develop, and at present the production has greatly increased.

The brine is obtained from wells which are from 4 to 10 meters deep, and has a strength of from 2° to 5° Baumé, which is artificially raised to 20°. The yearly production is about 500,000 poods. The salt brings from 48 to 120 copecks, and, until 1881, paid 30 copecks excise duty per pood.

In the province of Warsaw are the Zechoginskian salt-works. They were built in 1828 on the banks of the Vistula, not far from the German frontier. The brine, which when taken from the artesian wells has but ¼° to 3° Lambert, is afterwards raised to 21°, previous to evaporating. The cost of evaporation, which is effected by wood and peat, is about 34 copecks per pood. The production, which previous to 1870 was annually about 400,000 poods, has since that date fallen off 90 per cent. The salt is sold for from 70 to 90 kopecks, and has heretofore paid 30 kopecks excise duty.

In the province of Tenisseik are the Troiskian works, about 187 versts from the town of Kansk. The annual production is about 75,000 poods. The salt costs the government 35 kopecks per pood to produce, and is sold from 66 to 91 kopecks per pood.

The province of Irkutsk possesses the salines Irkutsk and Ust-Kuta. The latter was erected in 1639, and has a strength of 14° Lambert. The annual production of the two is about 350,000 poods.

The district Yakutsk has two salt springs, but lying in a barren district remote from any town or city, the production is unimportant and constantly diminishing.

III.—Salt lakes.

In Russia by far the largest quantity of salt is obtained from its salt lakes. The largest of these, Lake Elton, lies about 132 versts from the village of Nickolayefskaya, in the province of Astrachan; the length of the lake is 18, its width 15 versts, its area about 198 square versts. The bottom of this lake is covered with salt. It is not known how thick this deposit is, but in 1805 it was penetrated to a depth of 4 meters. It was then discovered that the salt lay in strata, which were separated by thin layers of mud, 100 of which were counted in 4 meters. Up to 1665 the lake belonged to the Kalmucks, but from that date to 1731 it was worked by private enterprise in consideration of a tax of 3 kopecks per pood. In 1747 the lake became the property of the

empire, and from this date to 1862, a period of 116 years, it was, under the direction of the imperial government, the chief source of Russia's salt supply. During this period it yielded 513,332,097 poods of salt.

At the beginning of the present century, in consequence of the increased production in other districts, chiefly of the Crimean lakes, the yield of Lake Elton fell off, and in 1862 the government ceased work altogether. In 1865, under certain restrictions, private parties were allowed to gather salt.

The salt is obtained from May to September by laborers, who, standing in the water, break out the salt with crowbars. It is then carried ashore, where it is stored in quantities of 100,000 poods. Hence it is carted 132 versts to the nearest village, to be shipped all over Russia.

The largest "put out" was in 1867, when the yield was 7,348,814 poods. The price varies from 47 to 65 kopecks, and the excise duty till 1881 was 31 kopecks.

In this province, besides Lake Elton, 720 salt lakes and 1,200 salt steppes. In 1865 the government, in consideration of the payment of a tax of 31 kopecks, permitted the extraction of salt from these lakes by private parties; since then the production has greatly increased, reaching, in 1876, 10,115,606 poods. The price varies from 39 to 52 kopecks per pood.

In the Ural district there are more than 30 salt lakes, the largest lake, Indersky, having a length of 13 and width of 11 versts, with an area of 108 square versts; two salt springs flow into the lake, which yields a salt unusually pure and greatly esteemed for salting fish.

The province of Orenburg possesses various salt lakes which are worked by private enterprise, but whose production has never exceeded 20,000 poods.

In the province of the Don Cossacks are 14 salt lakes which, in 1876, yielded 1,138,161 poods.

The Crimea has five groups of lakes viz: The Kertsch-Feodosian, yielding annually 1,500,000 poods; the Cenpatorian, consisting of 18 lakes, and yielding about 1,500,000 poods; the Genitscheskian, yielding about 2,000,000; the Perekopian, which has yielded as much as 23,000,000; and the Kinburn, consisting of more than 60 lakes, but yielding no great amount of salt.

The Crimean lakes are all near the sea, from which they are separated by narrow strips of sand. The water becomes fully saturated with salt during the summer, which it deposits on the bottom of the lake, whence it is collected. The production of these lakes varies greatly, having been in 1862, 23,176,270 poods; in 1867, 6,752,618 poods; in 1873, 23,532,754 poods; in 1876, 12,007,328 poods.

The government of Kerson yields annually from one to two million poods of salt.

In Caucasia, in the district of Kuban, are four groups of lakes on the shores of the Sea of Azof, viz: The Achtarskian, of 7 lakes; the Atschnyefskian, of 13 lakes; the Taman and the Yassenskian groups. The annual yield is from 75,000 to 150,000 poods.

The province of Stafropol yields annually about 260,000 poods; the government of Baku about 450,000 poods; and, finally, the districts of Semipatalinsk, Semiretschinsk, Tomsk, Yenisseisk, Labaikaesk, Yakutsk, and Trkutsk, all produce quantities varying from 10,000 to 1,000,000 poods annually.

IV. Conclusion.

The salt trade of Russia is under the control of the department for indirect taxes, which is a branch of the bureau of finances.

The total salt production of Russia, from 1830 to 1876 is shown, for quintenniums, in the following table:

	Yield.	Yearly average.
	Poods.	*Poods.*
From 1830 to 1834	109, 358 307	21, 871, 661
From 1835 to 1839	122, 686, 530	24, 537, 306
From 1840 to 1844	138, 875, 050	27, 775, 010
From 1845 to 1849	156, 600, 605	31, 320, 121
From 1850 to 1854	117, 166, 743	23, 433, 348
From 1855 to 1859	151, 859, 135	30, 371, 827
From 1860 to 1864	151, 465, 407	30, 293, 081
From 1865 to 1869	190, 423, 815	38, 084, 763
From 1870 to 1874	194, 749, 662	38, 949, 932

The following table shows Russia's annual salt production from 1865 to 1876:

Year.	Rock salt.	Cooking salt.	Lake salt.	Total.
	Poods.	*Poods.*	*Poods.*	*Poods.*
1865	1, 602, 986	8, 842, 592	20, 193, 178	30, 638, 756
1866	2, 465, 416	11, 517, 167	25, 487, 679	39, 470, 262
1867	3, 245, 902	11, 663, 066	29, 319, 107	44, 228, 075
1868	3, 780, 286	12, 826, 689	20, 191, 278	36, 798, 253
1869	2, 648, 145	12, 909, 327	23, 780, 997	39, 228, 469
1870	2, 887, 319	12, 164, 892	13, 961, 247	29, 013, 458
1871	3, 067, 042	11, 654, 596	13, 966, 026	28, 677, 665
1872	4, 647, 926	11, 979, 511	23, 084, 864	39, 712, 311
1873	3, 036, 686	11, 546. 053	35, 815, 971	50, 398, 710
1874	3, 335, 199	13, 481, 706	30, 130, 613	46, 947, 518
1875	4, 006, 388	14, 489, 582	19, 495, 429	37, 991. 399
1876	3, 324, 437	13, 424, 257	26, 991, 103	43, 739, 797

Russia's salt exports, from 1865 to 1876, are given below:

Year.	Across the—		Total.
	European frontier.	Asiatic frontier.	
	Poods.	*Poods.*	*Poods.*
1865	143, 275	74, 997	218, 272
1866	1, 009, 990	63, 637	1, 073, 627
1867	1, 020, 850	25, 326	1, 046, 176
1868	135, 248	45, 530	180, 778
1869	54, 645	14, 955	69, 600
1870	414	1, 383	1, 797
1871	5, 610	26, 906	32, 516
1872	9, 987	43, 589	53, 576
1873	1, 300	7, 519	8, 819
1874	9	51, 646	51, 655
1875		38, 262	38, 262
1876	2, 919	13, 835	16, 754

Crimean salt was only exported across the European frontiers, and only in 1866–'67, to any considerable amount. The exports across the Asiatic frontier were conducted exclusively from Transcaucasia, and did not exceed 75,000 poods.

Russia's imports of salt, from 1865 to 1876, are given in the following table:

Year.	Across the—		Total.
	European frontier.	Asiatic frontier.	
	Poods.	*Poods.*	*Poods.*
1865	9, 949, 603	558, 011	10, 507, 614
1866	7, 542, 023	493, 635	8, 035, 658
1867	11, 435, 022	287, 797	11, 722, 819
1868	10, 270, 879	449	10, 271, 328
1869	11, 288, 671	2, 506	11, 291, 177
1870	10, 453, 720	585	10, 454, 305
1871	11, 832, 324	852	11, 833, 176
1872	11, 712, 537	1, 562	11, 714, 099
1873	12, 407, 558	3, 287	12, 410, 845
1874	12, 145, 976	1, 448	12, 147, 424
1875	11, 826, 170	1, 453	11, 827, 623
1876	17, 279, 925	696	17, 280, 621

Deducting Russia's exports from her imports, and adding the result to her production, we have in the following table her annual consumption of salt, viz:

	Poods.		Poods.
1865	40, 928, 098	1871	40, 478, 325
1866	46, 432, 293	1872	51, 372, 834
1867	54, 905, 718	1873	62, 800, 736
1868	46, 888, 803	1874	59, 043, 287
1869	50, 450, 046	1875	49, 780, 760
1870	39, 465, 966	1876	62, 003, 664

RUSSIA'S NAVIGATION FROM 1875 TO 1878.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL STANTON OF ST. PETERSBURG.

Herewith find a statement of the arrivals in and departures from the Russian Empire, of all ships, together with their tonnage, and also a statement of the nationality and tonnage of such arrivals, for the years 1875, 1876, 1877, and 1878.

EDGAR STANTON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
St. Petersburg, August 9, 1881.

Statement of the nationality, tonnage, and number of ships entering the Russian Empire during the years 1875, 1876, 1877, *and* 1878.

Nationality.	Ships.				Tonnage in Russian lasts.			
	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.
RUSSIA IN EUROPE.								
British	2,339	2,102	2,416	3,325	768,834	823,031	837,451	1,418,605
Russian	1,344	1,536	1,359	1,655	206,090	206,401	163,190	418,660
German	1,652	1,907	2,279	2,325	208,688	244,666	285,036	306,482
Swedish and Norwegian	1,471	1,808	2,011	2,072	217,072	267,690	286,917	283,933
Italian	762	555	111	831	185,627	142,186	31,300	213,276
Danish	778	906	1,410	1,109	84,148	122,473	173,853	162,902
Grecian	741	628	311	1,214	93,731	84,511	37,714	152,084
Austrian	364	338	32	451	101,045	97,621	14,669	101,304
French	152	120	71	197	51,033	63,639	18,220	100,306
Dutch	684	707	657	556	80,758	97,526	83,672	78,520
Belgian	49	54	27	42	23,969	29,884	14,821	26,030
Turkish	544	384	48	398	14,770	12,731	1,498	11,954
American	28	24	20	20	11,534	8,083	5,727	8,149
Spanish				2				556
Roumanian	5	2	1	3	530	242	124	88
Portuguese		2		1		843		70
Brazilian	1				102			
Total for Russia in Europe	10,914	11,373	10,753	14,211	2,047,911	2,201,527	1,954,492	3,282,919
RUSSIA IN ASIA.								
Russian	1,131	1,096	677	583	128,514	142,188	82,631	54,730
Turkish	1,352	1,866	261	1,605	12,970	17,337	2,399	20,246
British	26	15	5	26	9,791	5,177	1,749	12,140
French	8	16	3	12	2,503	4,436	1,045	4,176
Belgian		2		3		826		1,188
Austrian	6	1		3	1,308	230		471
Persian	74	77	59	57	594	627	478	445
Grecian	9	1		3	949	111		409
German	1			1	655			358
Italian	1	3		1	198	795		344
Norwegian and Swedish	5				1,186			
Total for Russia in Asia	2,613	3,077	1,005	2,294	158,668	171,727	88,302	94,507
Grand totals	13,527	14,450	11,758	16,505	2,206,579	2,373,254	2,042,494	3,377,426
Total steamers entered	3,740	4,293	4,092	5,947	1,269,805	1,449,928	1,327,994	2,361,751
Total sailing vessels enter'd	9,787	10,157	7,666	10,558	936,774	923,326	714,500	1,015,675
Total steam and sail enter'd	13,527	14,450	11,758	16,505	2,206,579	2,373,254	2,042,494	3,377,426

Statement of arrivals and departures in the Russian Empire during the years 1875, 1876, 1877, *and* 1878.

	No. of ships.				Tonnage in Russian lasts.			
	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.
ARRIVALS.								
Foreign traders:								
In Ballast	6,032	6,456	5,918	7,874	930,475	943,533	1,031,369	1,721,391
Freighted	7,495	7,994	5,840	8,631	1,276,104	1,429,721	1,011,125	1,656,035
Total	13,527	14,450	11,758	16,505	2,206,579	2,373,254	2,042,494	3,377,426
Coasters:								
In Ballast	12,436	11,156	7,151	14,267	600,741	721,279	357,129	917,918
Freighted	21,327	22,823	17,590	26,852	1,735,765	2,008,472	1,275,318	2,312,134
Total	33,763	33,979	24,741	41,119	2,336,506	2,729,751	1,632,447	3,230,052
Total in Ballast	18,468	17,612	13,069	22,141	1,531,216	1,664,812	1,388,498	2,639,309
Total Freighted	28,822	30,817	23,430	35,483	3,011,869	3,438,193	2,286,443	3,968,169
Grand Total	47,290	48,429	36,499	57,624	4,543,085	5,103,005	3,674,941	6,607,478
DEPARTURES.								
Foreign Traders:								
In Ballast	1,848	2,012	652	1,711	214,993	209,418	109,432	402,761
Freighted	11,309	12,232	10,948	14,586	1,965,142	2,172,855	1,943,934	2,935,882
Total	13,157	14,244	11,600	16,297	2,180,135	2,382,273	2,053,366	3,338,643
Coasters:								
In Ballast	12,436	11,156	7,151	14,267	600,741	721,279	357,129	917,918
Freighted	21,327	22,823	17,590	26,852	1,735,765	2,008,472	1,275,318	2,312,134
Total	33,763	33,979	24,741	41,119	2,336,506	2,729,751	1,632,447	3,230,052
Total in Ballast	14,284	13,168	7,803	15,978	815,734	930,697	466,561	1,320,679
Total Freighted	32,636	35,055	28,538	41,438	3,700,907	4,181,327	3,219,252	5,248,016
Grand Total	46,920	48,223	36,341	57,416	4,516,641	5,112,024	3,685,813	6,568,695

FISHERIES OF NAGASAKI, JAPAN.

REPORT OF CONSUL SMITH, OF NAGASAKI.

The fisheries of Japan constitute about the most important industry of the country.

It is to be regretted that there are no data, in the way of reliable statistics, obtainable, which would give an accurate report of the extent and value of this industry.

If, however, it is considered that the population of Japan is about 35,000,000 of people, and that fish is the chief article of food which enters into the consumption of every Japanese household, and that a very large trade is carried on in preparing and exporting dried fish to China, one will be enabled to form an approximate idea of the extent of the business and the number of people engaged in it.

In this consular district of Nagasaki alone there are nearly 70,000 people engaged exclusively in the business of the fisheries, whose annual receipts for the sale of fish amount to over 1,000,000 yen.

Like almost everything else in Japan the fisheries are conducted by father and son, and I may add, mother and daughter, for the females of the family take their share of the work, from generation to generation.

The fishermen, therefore, are not only trained to the business from early infancy, but inherit, also, every tradition on the subject for a thousand years. They inhabit the same villages, resort to the same fishing grounds, and employ the same methods, of the earliest known fishermen. I am led to the opinion, from observation and comparison, that they are the most skillful fishermen, and that Japan affords the best fishing grounds in the universe.

The first glimpse which the traveler has of life in Japan, on his approach to its shores, is a myriad of fishing boats, radiating from every point of land, bearing the naked and bronzed fisherman, with a song, to his constant avocation. These men, naked save the breech-clout, and of a warm, rich bronze color, are handsome, muscular fellows, as all their class are, in Japan. Their life is one of constant toil, but they seem contented and happy as any people in the world.

The fisherman's boat is a model of its kind; from 20 to 30 feet in length and of proportional width, constructed of light, strong wood, it rests on the water like a sea-gull, and is propelled by sculls with great rapidity. There are from one to five and seven men at the oars.

Sculling is the method universally used among the Japanese. The oar or scull consists of two pieces, the one joined to the other, overlapping it about the middle. On the handle is a pin, on which a rope is slipped, so that the oar is held down to a uniform height while being worked. The blade is flat and long, and rests, near where it joins the stock, on an outrigger pivot. The sweep of the stock at the hand is about 3 feet. Planting his foot on the rail, the sculler sways his arms and body at right angles with the boat, and sends it along with great ease and rapidity.

The same model of boat, but smaller in size and of neater construction and finish, some with a little cabin in the forward part called "house-boats," are used everywhere in the waters of Japan under the general name of "sanpan."

I have heard the terms heavy and clumsy applied to these boats, but if carefully examined they are found to be the very perfection of marine architecture, and are more graceful in the water and are propelled with more ease and swiftness than any boats I have ever seen.

I accompanied a friend last week, in his boat of this description, out around the islands and among the fishermen. Between my friend and the fishermen I picked up many scraps of information on the subject of fishing, and saw the methods. The boat was arranged with every possible convenience, and, with three powerful "sendos," flew over the waters like a veritable thing of life.

It is well to mix a little pleasure with the arduous labor of seeking information about unknown fish, and anchored here and there under the lee of picturesque islands, with the comforts of a generous locker and the luxury of a "picul" of ice, we were well disposed to enjoy the fresh sea-breeze and the sparkling waves, the songs of the fishermen, and all the beauty of the scene on the Yellow Sea.

The fish is much reverenced in Japan. It is in fact the basis of Japanese life and prosperity. It is embroidered on screens and *kakimonas*, and enters into many forms of their confectionery. Kites are made in the shape of fish. On a certain festival day every family that has a son born during that year hangs out a great painted fish in commemoration of the event, and the streets of their towns on these occasions are gay with innumerable fluttering banners of fish.

At native dinner parties the first dish set before the guests, on a small lacquered stand about six inches high, is a beautifully-modeled and painted candy fish, which is always sent the next morning to the guest, with the compliments of the host, and when the first course of sweetmeats and candy is removed, it is customary to bring in, on a deep tray, borne by two handsomely-dressed girls, an immense live fish, which is passed successively before each guest. The guests on these occasions, it may be understood, sit on the floor cross-legged, around the three or four sides of the room.

One of the early historical myths of Japan ascribes to a fish the subversion of an empire. It is written that in the year 193 the Empress Jingu Kōgō, in order to obtain a sign from the gods as to her success in conquering Korea, went down to the sea-shore and baited her hook with a grain of boiled rice to catch a fish. "Now," said she, "I shall conquer a rich country if a fish be caught with a grain of rice." The bait took, a fish was caught, and the empress exultingly accepted the success of her venture as a token of celestial approval of her design. History tells us that she went, at the head of her army, disguised as a man, and Korea was conquered.

The women of the section where the fish was caught, to this day, in commemoration of the event, in the first part of the fourth month of every year, go fishing, no males being allowed the privilege at that time. It is a common belief among the people that to a fish Japan is indebted for its earthquakes. The theory is that there exists a subterraneous fish of prodigious dimensions, lying under the entire extent of Japan. The motions of the monster are known by the tremors of the earth, and are in accordance with its humors. When shocks of extraordinary violence are felt, the monster is in a rage, and the earth and the sea are equally at its mercy.

Nearly every kind of fish in the ocean is eaten by the Japanese, and the multitude and variety of the choicest edible fish is remarkable. The fish markets consequently are places of curious interest, and show many strange species, from the beautiful flying fish to the shark and devil-fish. In the earlier days it was the custom to eat live fish; and even now there are certain choice fish which, when the seines are drawn, the women rush at with knives in hand, and cut and eat while still wriggling.

The larger fishing boats, called Kotsu-fuai, are made to carry from

thirty to forty men. These are propelled both by sculls and bamboo sails. They are used in catching deep-sea fish, the albicore and the bonita; the former is a fish from four to six feet in length and weighs from 150 to 200 pounds; the latter weighs from 10 to 20 pounds. Both these fish are caught with hook and line, and often in the seine.

The smaller fishing boats are constructed with a division in the center, with openings for the water to enter, in which the fish are kept alive.

Much of the fishing is done in the night-time, when the torches of the fishermen light up the sea. The fish are attracted by the light and are speared from the boats' sides as well as taken by the hook. The greater portion of the fish and especially the smaller and most common varieties, are taken in stationary nets, in comparatively shallow water from ten to twenty fathoms deep. Some of the nets used will cover an acre of surface. They are in the shape of a triangle, the finest meshes are at the apex of the triangle and gradually enlarge as they extend toward the base. The apex is held in place by a buoy of bamboo poles, and bunches of these are also placed at intervals along the sides and across the base of the net. The center of the net falls to the bottom, while the large meshes at the outer sides permit fish of all sizes to enter. When it is desired to make a haul, boats pass along the base and the net is gradually gathered up as they near the apex. In this way the fish are driven into the finer part, when they are secured by dip-nets. The large net is at no time taken into the boats, but passed under the bottoms as they approach the buoy, and at the end is ready set for another haul. Their other seines differ in no respect from those used on the Atlantic coast.

The larger and rarer kinds of fish are taken by the hook.

The common and coarse-flesh fish, such as sharks, skates, and mackerel are very abundant in these waters and are largely consumed by the poorer classes. Young sharks are highly esteemed by the natives.

The most valuable of all the food-fish is a sea bream, which is known in Japan as the "Tai." I am of opinion that it corresponds somewhat with the "pompono" of the coasts of Florida and Louisiana, though a more delicate fish. A species of sardine of excellent quality is found here in great abundance, and is used in a dried as well as in a fresh state. To take them, two boats usually go out together under sail before the wind with a line from each boat, holding the net between them; when the catch is made the boats come together and the net drawn up.

They are preserved alive for market in bamboo baskets sunk in the water. I am not aware that any attempt has been made to put them up in oil for commerce.

In the Nagasaki district there are employed in the fisheries 21,476 boats, 66,215 persons. The yearly catch is 66,843.05 catties of fish of the value of 1,199,080 yen.

Exports of Marine products for a year, from Nagasaki, from July, 1880, to June, 1881.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
	Piculs.	*Yen.*
Dried awabi	954.21	21,439.08
Cuttle-fish	15,575.71	277,970.20
Beche de mer	1,016.45	35,708 04
Shark's fins	822.84	27,081.20
Dried shrimp	347.56	5,452.00
Dried shell-fish	3,070.46	32,673.68
Dried mussel	4.81	35.10
		400,359.30

The shells of the awabi fish in a rough state are worth in the market $6 a picul, and the dried fish $40 a picul. The export of these shells last year, from Nagasaki, were 4,097 piculs, of the value of $37,792.

The awabi shell or "ear shell", as it is called in commerce, is the mother of pearl, and is sent mostly to England, where it is used in making ornaments for ladies' wear. The dried awabi is exported altogether to China. The total value of dried fish exported from Japan last year amounted to over $1,000,000.

Salmon are caught in great abundance in the northern part of Japan, in the neighborhood of Hakodate, where a large river empties into the sea. The fishery at the mouth of this river is said to yield about $60,000 a year, in salmon and other fish. The fishing season there is September and October. The nets used are, some of them, 400 feet long by 40 feet deep, and require about 70 men to haul them. Ten thousand salmon have been caught at one haul of the seine. Smaller nets in poor seasons take 700 and 800 salmon in a day.

The Japanese have been taught the way of trimming salmon for commerce. So abundant are the fish in many parts of Japan, that fish manure is an article of standard manufacture, sale and use.

The oysters of Japan deserve some mention, perhaps, in this connection, though there is no comparison to be made between them and the oysters of the United States, the latter are so infinitely superior. The oysters of Nagasaki are said to be the best; they are large, but not compact, fat, and juicy like the American oyster, and eaten raw, have little of the taste. but cooked in any way serve very well to remind an American of oysters.

The seas of Japan are remarkable among other things for the variety and luxuriance of edible seaweed.

In April and May many whales are taken near Hirado and the Goto Islands in this district. During these months the whales are passing to the northward, and linger here on account of the fishing grounds. When a whale is discovered from 6 to 20 boats put off in his pursuit. Some of them spread a vast net in front of him, while the others conduct the attack with harpoons and lances. The harpoon is thrown high in the air and comes down with the barbed point into his flesh. When entangled in the meshes of the net he becomes an easy prey. The flesh of the whale is esteemed a great luxury by the natives, and brings the highest price in the markets.

Dr. Dale, United States Navy, attached to the United States steamship Palos, an able ichthyologist, while at Nagasaki was employed in making a collection of fishes for the Smithsonian Institute. He informed me that, in his opinion, there is no fish market in the world superior to that of Nagasaki, either in the number of species or in the quality of its food fishes. During his stay here he secured some 200 different species of fish, comprising specimens of almost every known family; and this, too, at the poorest season of the year. The crustacea, Dr. Dale thinks, are but little less numerous and valuable than the fish themselves. He states that the fishes of Japan cannot be said to resemble those found on the Atlantic coast of North America; they are more nearly allied to those of California, and are almost identical with the fishes of the Mediterranean.

A. C. JONES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nagasaki, Japan, August 4, 1881.

NOTE.—A cattie is 1⅓ pounds; a picul, 133⅓ pounds; a yen is the paper currency supposed to correspond in value to a dollar.

FINANCES OF JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN, OF KANAGAWA.

I have the honor to submit herewith a report upon the finances of Japan, in which I have endeavored to present, in a readable form, the revenues, expenditures, and present financial situation of the empire. To this end I have given, with some particularity, the methods and items of taxation, as well as the expenditures of each branch of the government; the provisions of the law creating national banks, the number of the latter; the amount of bank-notes and treasury notes in circulation; the character and amount of the national debt, and the general condition of the country.

FINANCES.

Analysis of the principal items of revenue.

The customs imports and exports are 2,569,462 yen. The imports and exports are limited by treaty to 5 per cent. ad valorem on almost all articles of trade. On the 1st of July, 1879, the export duty on cotton and silk fabrics, bronze and lacquer wares, paper, fans, bamboo, pottery, and umbrellas, was abolished.

The land tax amounts to 41,901,441 yen.

During the whole historic period agriculture has been the principal industry of the country. Under the oldest régime, when the emperor was the real as well as nominal head of the government, the land was divided into nine squares, the central of which was cultivated by the holders of the other eight, for the use of the emperor. Thus the land tax amounted to one-ninth of the whole product of the soil.

During the fifteenth century, when the military leaders, the shoguns and daimios, gradually usurped the real power of the emperor, four-tenths of the produce of the land was exacted.

In 1873, after the restoration of the authority of the emperor, the general government tax was made 3 per cent. in addition to the local or ren tax, which was 1 per cent. In 1876 a decree was issued, reducing the general tax to 2½ per cent. and the local tax to one-half of one per cent. At the same time it was announced that it was in view to increase the tax on tobacco and spirits, and further reduce the land tax gradually to 1 per cent. At present, 1880, it remains at 2½ per cent. for the general government and one half of one per cent. for local purposes.

Mining tax, 12,544 yen.

The title to all mineral lands is still in the emperor. The tax is first on the value of the land. If the mines are actually worked there is a tax of about $1 to every 6 square rods from which ore is taken. There is a further tax in the form of a royalty, of from 3 to 20 per cent. upon the ore actually extracted, depending upon the working profits of the mine.

With all this burden upon mining it is not wonderful that the revenue from that source is so small, or that the mining development is so slow and unsatisfactory.

Tax on the products of Yesso, 660,979 yen.

To within a few years the inhabitants of Yesso were almost entirely *ainis*, the aboriginal people of Japan, who had been gradually driven before the conquerors, till the remnants of the race had taken refuge on

this northern island. They were hunters and fishermen. In addition to these there were a few thousand Japanese colonists who endured the comparatively cold climate for the sake of the cheap lands, the fisheries, timber, &c. The government, in lieu of land and other taxes, levied special taxes upon all their products, running from 10 to 25 per cent.

Tax on distilled and fermented liquors, 5,965,029 yen.

The liquors are made mostly from rice and barley, and the tax formerly varied in the different provinces, but in 1871 a uniform tax was levied. This is, first, 10 yen for license to manufacture, and a tax upon the amount of rice used in brewing, amounting to from 2 to 4 yen for every 5 bushels, and 10 per cent. on the value of the liquor when made. Retail licenses 5 yen each.

Tax on tobacco, 348,674 yen.

There is no tax on the tobacco leaf. The manufacturer pays an annual license of 10 yen and the retailer 5 yen. Retailers must sell in stamped paper and the tax is an ad valorem one: 1 mill on 5 cents' worth; 2 mills on 10 cents' worth; 1 cent on 20 cents' worth.

Stamp taxes, 650,000 yen.

Stamped paper is required for all receipts, contracts for over 10 yen, and for all real estate transfers, the tax being 3 cents for each transaction. The people of Japan are very careful in taking receipts for all payments, and in putting all contracts involving any considerable amount on paper. No document involving an amount above 10 yen is legal unless stamped.

Stamp tax on ruled paper for petitions, &c., 85,415 yen.

All petitions to local authorities and to the departments and courts must be on legal cap, and can only be obtained from the officials. The paper costs from 3 to 7 mills per sheet.

Lawyers licenses 10,000 yen. These licenses are 20 yen each per annum.

Steamship and boat licenses, 146,270 yen.

Junk license, 1 yen for every 500 bushels capacity.

Sailing ships, foreign model, 10 yen for every 100 tons capacity.

Steamers, 15 yen for every 100 tons capacity.

Small boats less than 18 feet in length pay 20 cents per annum, and above that length 15 cents for every additional 6 feet.

Cart and carriage licenses, 309,270 yen.

For a two-horse vehicle, 3 yen per annum; for a one-horse vehicle, 2 yen per annum; for jinrickisdas, wide, 2 yen per annum; for jinrickisdas, narrow, 1 yen per annum; for carts drawn by cattle or more than one man, 1 yen per annum; for carts drawn by one man, 50 cents.

Tax on companies, 300,000 yen.

This is a tax upon all business done by corporations and should be so entitled. It applies only to incorporated companies and is not a license at all. It is a tax of 7 per cent. upon sales. The tax is, on annual sales of 10,000 yen and over, 15 yen; annual sales of 7,000 to 10,000 yen, 13 yen; annual sales of 5,000 to 7,000 yen, 10 yen; annual sales of 3,000 to 5,000 yen, 7 yen; annual sales of 1,000 to 3,000 yen, 5 yen; annual sales of 700 to 1,000 yen, 3 yen; under 700 yen, 1.50 yen.

Shooting licenses, 45,917 yen.

All persons must have a permit for shooting.

For professional hunters who sell game in the markets the license is $1 per annum; license for pleasure hunting or shooting, $10 per annum.

Horse and cattle dealers' license, 67,879 yen.

This is a tax as well as license item. There is a license for each dealer of 10 yen, and 1 yen for every animal sold.

Weights and measures, 3,006 yen.

The sum under this head is derived, 1st, from the charge for examining, adjusting and stamping all scales and balances, and 2d, from licenses and taxes from manufacturers of scales, balances, &c. The tax on sales is 4 per cent.

Copyright fees, 3,556 yen.

Prior to 1876 there was no copyright law. By the present regulations an author can obtain a copyright by paying the retail price of 6 copies of the work. No foreigner can claim the privilege of the law.

Passport fees.—All Japanese subjects must have a permit when going abroad. The charge is 50 cents each.

Druggists' licenses, 65,879 yen.

There is no druggists' license or tax on the sale of drugs and medicines. This item is a license to sell patent medicines, quack nostrums, charms, &c. These licenses can only be had after submitting to the authorities a full statement of the nature and effects of the medicines proposed to be sold. The charge is $2 per annum and 25 cents for the sale of each bottle or package. No medicine containing opium is permitted to be sold.

Revenue from public works, 1,406,647 yen.

This includes the net revenue derived from government mines, railways, docks, and ship-yards, factories, machine-shops, foundries, &c. The government invested large sums in these various works, and, after years of losses, there is said to be at least a profit from some of them. But I am glad to say the system of carrying on industrial enterprises by the government has now been recognized as a mistake, and these works are offered for sale to individuals or corporations.

Miscellaneous revenues, 659,956 yen.

The items under this head are made up of moneys received from the sale or lease of government land and from repayments of loans made from time to time to various parties. When the restoration took place the general government loaned large sums of money to the local authorities, to pay old debts, to relieve people who had met losses by the ravages of war, and to make much-needed public improvements. From time to time the government has received partial repayments of these loans.

As I remarked above, the striking peculiarity in this exhibit of the revenue is that 70 per cent. of all the burdens of the government falls on the land owner.

EXPENDITURES.

The expenditure for the reduction of the national debt is stated at 5,817,538 yen, of which reduction 2,978,178 yen is of the domestic debt and 839,360 yen of the foreign debt, and 2,000,000 yen for the redemption of paper money.

Interest of the national debt 15,631,369 yen.

Of this, 14,832,127 yen is estimated for the interest of the domestic debt and 790,409 yen for that of the foreign debt.

Imperial household, 960,000 yen.

All the expenses of the imperial household, palaces, and establishments, as well as the allowances to branches of the imperial family are included in this item.

Annuities, pensions, &c., 596,744 yen.

Under this head are included—

1st. Annuity for meritorious services, 152,572 yen.

This is a civil-service pension expenditure. Pensions are granted

upon the report of a board appointed to examine all applications for civil pensions.

2d. Favored allowances to soldiers, 178,162 yen.

These are rewards for conspicuous services of officers and soldiers.

3d. Pensions to shrines and temples, 104,400 yen.

In olden times the government gave large sums of money for the support of the Shinto and Buddhist shrines and temples. Upon the restoration of the Mikado in 1868 much of the support given to the Buddhists was withdrawn. The amount of this item is mostly donated to the Shinto shrines. It is proposed to gradually decrease this amount, leaving the maintenance of these shrines and temples to the voluntary contributions of the people.

4th. Hereditary pensions to soldiers of Okinawa Ken, 161,610 yen.

Okinawa Ken is composed of the Loochoo Islands. The soldiers referred to are the nobility of that ken. Up to the present time they had incomes from the land. Now all such incomes have been capitalized and put on the same footing as the pensions of the nobility of the rest of the empire. This subject is fully explained in treating of the national debt.

Expenditures of Kwan, Sho In Shi, and Kioku, 23,051,409 yen.

These are the different departments of the government.

Daijo Kwan, 500,000 yen.

This is the great council, and formerly consisted of the Emperor, the three prime ministers, and the heads of the departments. Early in the present year, a reorganization took place, and those members of council who were heads of departments were relieved of their departmental duties and others appointed to their places in the departments. This great council of state has a general supervision and final authority over all the business of the country.

Foreign Department, 201,000 yen.

This item includes only the salaries of the minister and his staff. The salary of the minister is 7,500 yen, and of the vice-minister 5,000 yen. There are 120 other officials whose salaries are from 300 to 4,500 yen per annum.

Home Department, 1,647,150 yen.

This is by far the most important of the departments of the government. It has immediate supervision of all the ken or local governments of the empire, and of the levy and collection of the general and local taxes, as well as the whole system of water and land transportation. The bureau of agriculture, with its manufactories of machinery, and its improved farms, is attached to this department. It has a minister, vice-minister, and 800 subordinate officers, whose salaries are the same as the corresponding grades in the other departments.

Finance Department, 1,487,700 yen.

This department has a minister, vice-minister, and 1,000 subordinates. The taxes are collected by the different local governments and held subject to the order of the minister of finance. Considering the difficulties in which the country found itself at the time of the Restoration, the magnitude of the work of reorganization, the financial burdens inherited from the feudal system, and the expenses of the wars which followed the abolition of that system, and the cost of introducing western civilization, the labors of the finance department have been exceedingly difficult and onerous.

War Department, 8,151,000 yen.

The expenses of this department are about 1,447,000 yen greater than last year. This is accounted for by the increase in the army, the build-

ing of new arsenals and foundries, and the establishment of a transportation corps. It may seem strange that such a corps should not have been formed until 22 years after the organization of the army on a French basis, but this is to be explained by the almost entire lack of carriage roads through the country. Now that a few roads have been constructed, wheel transportation is to some extent practicable, and this necessary branch of army education is being thoroughly taught.

Navy Department, 3,015,000 yen.

The expenses of this department are not greater than in 1877 and 1878. The navy consists of the following vessels:

Name and description.	Tons burden.	Number of guns.	Remarks.
Adzuma, iron-clad, screw	700	3	500 horse-power.
Arnaki, iron-clad, screw	908	9	
Asama screw	1,104	12	300 horse-power.
Chioda-gata, iron-clad, screw	100	3	60 horse-power.
Fuji-Yama, iron-clad, screw	1,000	13	Training-ship.
Fuso, armor-plated, screw	3,740	12	3,500 horse-power.
Hiyei, screw, composite	2,200	13	2,500 horse-power.
Hoso, screw, composite	173	4	70 horse-power.
Iwake (Japanese built), screw	600	3	650 horse-power.
Jingei (Japanese built), Imperial yacht			
Kaimon (Japanese built), compound engine	1,490	8	1,250 horse-power.
Kasuga, paddle-wheel	1,015	7	300 horse-power.
Kenko, screw	300		
Kongo, screw, composite	2,200	13	1,500 horse-power.
Mashrien	305	4	100 horse-power.
Niahiri, screw	784	18	250 horse-power.
Raidim	240	4	80 horse-power.
Kiojo, iron-belt screw	1,459	14	280 horse-power.
Setau, store-ship			
Seiki, screw	898	8	180 horse-power.
Soorin, yacht			
Teibo, screw	125	5	60 horse-power.
Tenno, screw, compound engine	1,490	7	1,250 horse-power.
Tsukuba, screw	1,033	12	200 horse-power.

The Navy Department has an extensive navy-yard, with docks, foundries, machine shops, and all the appliances for building first-class vessels at Yokosuka, 12 miles from Yokohama. They also have another station at Nagasaki.

Department of Education, 1,181,100 yen.

The amounts expended by the general government for educational purposes have not materially increased for the past five years.

Public Works Department, 545,860 yen.

This department has charge of the bureaus of mines, railways, telegraphs, light-houses, and schools of technology.

The expenditures on account of this department have decreased since 1874–'75, nearly 4,000,000 yen. This is owing to the fact that the system of light-houses and telegraphs is nearly completed. The buildings of the school of technology, with library, machine-shop, &c., attached, have also been completed. There are various other items of expenditure for mines and public works which are not included in this appropriation, but which appear further on.

Department of Justice, 1,785,000 yen.

There has been an increase of about 400,000 yen since last year on account of the increased number of courts established, and the carrying into effect the new criminal and civil codes.

Imperial Household Department, 348,000 yen.

This is a distinct and separate department of the government, and must not be confounded with the household itself. This department has

at its head a minister—who was, up to this year, also a member of the Grand Council—a vice-minister, and 250 under-officers. The whole control of the affairs of the imperial household is in charge of this department. As has been seen, the actual expenses of the household are 960,000 yen. The department that has control of this expenditure costs 348,000 yen.

Genro In, 184,000 yen.

This is a deliberative body of 29 members, with advisory powers *only*. It was established in 1875 for the purpose of discussing and elaborating such measures as are proposed to it by the Nai-Kaku, a bureau of the Great Council. Its members are appointed by the Throne, and selected from the daimios, from officials who have won promotion to a certain grade, and from some of the people who have become eminent in politics.

Colonization Department, 1,834,199 yen.

The affairs of the island of Yesso are under the control of this department. It was organized to settle and develop the resources of that portion of the empire. Up to 1871 there were very few Japanese on the island. Its area is between 35,000 and 36,000 square miles. The whole population in 1878 was less than 50,000. The efforts at colonization, with settlers from the more southern islands, although attended with a certain amount of success, have met with many difficulties, the greatest of which is in inducing people to remove from a warm to a colder climate. It is a movement opposed to all the great currents of human migration.

So long as there are large areas of cheap, unsettled, arable lands in a milder climate the full success of this undertaking cannot be counted on. The result of what has been done in the past nine years may be briefly summed up by saying that a partial geological and topographical survey has been made and reports published. One or two wagon-roads have been built. A railroad from the capital to coal mines, 21 miles distant, is now being rapidly constructed by a competent American engineer, and it is to be equipped with American rolling stock. This will be the first American railway in the East.

An agricultural college has been opened, model farms have been established, and labor-saving farm machinery, foreign fruits, food plants, and farm stock introduced. Saw-mills have been built in the vicinity of the forests. The fisheries, with large factories for canning, are being made a source of profit. The land has been surveyed in small plots and offered to actual settlers at low prices. The soil is rich. There is an abundance of timber. The country is well watered, and the climate though cold is not severely so. Coal, coal oil, gold, silver, and other minerals are found there. The rivers and sea abound in all kinds of fish. If there was a redundant and available population for purposes of colonization this island would soon be one of the richest and most prosperous portions of the empire.

Legations and consulates in foreign countries, 831,000 yen.

This is for the maintenance of the diplomatic and consular service, which has been established in all the principal countries of the world.

Land tax reform office, 90,400 yen.

This is an office established for the complete resurvey of all taxable land, and a general equalization of that tax.

Post-office bureau, 1,260,000 yen.

It is estimated that this bureau will pay its expenses and leave a surplus the coming year.

Supplement to deficiencies of various public works, 103,172 yen.

Many new mines, ship-yards and docks, foundries and manufactories,

have been instituted, and have not so far made any return upon the capital invested by the government, but have shown deficiencies.

Expenditures of cities and prefectures, 4,539,280 yen.

The three largest cities in the empire, Tokio, Osaka, and Kioto, have separate and independent organization. There are 35 prefectures or kens. The expenditures under this head by the general government is for the support of these local governments in addition to local taxation.

Expenditures for police, 2,575,596 yen.

This item is for the pay of the police force, which is under the control of the national government. The police service extends to every part of the empire. The entire number employed in the force is more than 20,000, and probably exceeds 25,000.

Expenditures for shrines, 135,000 yen.

This item is for the repair of certain imperial shrines and tombs.

Repairs and construction of dikes and embankments, 1,884,415 yen. All along the coasts much of the alluvial plains have been reclaimed from the sea and rivers by dikes and embankments, at cost of great labor and money.

The government heretofore owning all the land, performed the work of redeeming these areas, and although the lands have been sold, it still assumes the expenses of construction and repairs.

Subsidy to famine relief fund, 1,200,000 yen.

This is a fund provided to make up any deficiencies in the revenue which may arise in any locality from the failure of the crops from any cause. It sometimes happens that some of the provinces cannot pay their land tax, from a partial failure of crops and the tax has been carried over to the next year, when a double burden fell upon the farmer. All such deficiencies are to be paid from this relief fund. In addition to paying the deficient taxes this fund can be drawn upon to relieve the distressed with food and clothing.

Expenses for the creation of public works and industries, 1,331,559 yen.

This is an estimate for the extension of rail and carriage ways, telegraphs, and for building new docks, manufactories, &c.

Contingency funds, 1,500,000 yen.

These are the different departments' contingent funds.

NATIONAL DEBT.

The debt of Japan is divided into two general classes, foreign and domestic. The foreign debt is 11,012,696 yen, and is known as the old loan and new loan debt.

The old loan debt, 976,000 yen.

This debt was for money raised in 1871 in London for the purpose of building a railway from Yokohama to Tokio. The bonds bear interest at 9 per cent. gold.

A special sinking fund has been provided by which this debt is being gradually extinguished. Thus far 3,913,000 yen of the original debt have been paid.

The new loan debt, 10,036,696 yen.

This debt bears 7 per cent. interest gold, and was contracted in London to pay the voluntarily surrendered allowances and pensions of the daimios and their retainers. It was at first 12,000,000 yen, but by provision of the sinking fund has been reduced 1,963,304 yen.

DOMESTIC DEBT.

The whole amount of the domestic debt is 347,034,594 yen. This may be classed as interest bearing and non-interest bearing.

Interest-bearing debt, 229,139,615 yen.

This may be itemized as follows:

	Yen.
1st loan, raised from the people for public improvement, at 4 per cent. interest	11,152,650
2d, bonds exchanged for currency, at 6 per cent	4,603,300
3d, bonds to meet voluntary surrender of pensions by nobles, at 8 per cent.	11,821,950
4th, bonds to meet compulsory surrender of pensions, at 5 per cent	31,412,555
5th, same as above, at 6 per cent	25,352,450
6th, same as above, at 7 per cent	107,997,015
7th, same as above, at 10 per cent	8,676,370
8th, bonds to meet surrender of priests' pensions, at 8 per cent	423,325
9th, bonds for public works, at 6 per cent	12,500,000
10th, bonds to meet expenses Satsuma rebellion, at 5 per cent	15,000,000

The explanation of the above may be briefly stated by items as follows:

1st, 11,152,650 yen.

Upon the restoration of the Mikado's authority the new government commenced the construction of a system of internal improvements consisting of railways, telegraphs, light-houses, the establishment of postal facilities, and the colonization of Yesso. For this purpose large sums were expended, and the amount under this item was to supplement the appropriations from the annual revenues used to that end.

2d, 4,603,300 yen.

In 1873 the government put a plan in operation which had in view the contraction of the currency and furnishing the means of investment by the people of small sums by means of an exchange for 6 per cent. convertible bonds in sums of 50 yen and upwards. A certain portion of these bonds are annually drawn by lot and paid at par in gold.

3d, 11,821,950 yen.

At the time of the abolition of feudalism, all the income from the different feudatories of the empire was in the hands of the daimios and their retainers. When, in 1869, they surrendered their privileges they received a compensation or allowance calculated at one-tenth of their former incomes. In addition to these there was another class of pensioners, who had received annual allowances for services to the state. In 1873 a plan for the capitalization of these pensions and incomes was offered. A portion only of the holders accepted the offer. This sum in item 3 was raised for the purpose of capitalization in addition to the amount of item 2, foreign debt. Items 4, 5, 6, and 7, aggregating 173,638,390 yen, were incurred in the completion of the capitalization of these pensions and incomes. In 1876 commutation of them all was decided upon, and the scheme was consummated as rapidly as the government could find the means.

8th, 423,325 yen.

This is the indebtedness incurred in the commutation of the pensions of certain shrine priests.

9th, 12,500,000 yen.

This item is for money expended upon the system of public improvements.

10th, 15,000,000 yen.

This is a portion of the indebtedness made necessary by the Satsuma rebellion in 1876.

Non-interest-bearing debt, 117,894,979 yen.

1st item, 9,211,776 yen.

This indebtedness was incurred at the very commencement of the new *régime*. It was found that the daimios had contracted a very considerable indebtedness during the last 50 years of their administration. The

general government assumed their liabilities on condition that they were to be without interest and paid in installments of one-fiftieth annually.

2d item, 108,683,203 yen.

These are the treasury notes (greenbacks) actually in circulation. There has been a decrease of 7,166,186 yen during the past year, and a further decrease is estimated during the present year of 4,144,186 yen, but by what means this amount has been withdrawn or what disposition has been made of it, whether destroyed or held in reserve, is not explained. There is no known plan of retiring the currency except by the voluntary exchange by the holders of notes for convertible 6 per cent. bonds. The currency is all irredeemable and at a heavy discount. During the past 6 months it has fluctuated from 55 to 74 cents Mexican for the paper yen, and has been held from going lower only by the active interference of the government. The real purchasing power of this currency shows its depreciation to be much greater than the quotations on 'change.

As an example, rice, which is the staple crop and food of the country, has for the past 8 years preceeding 1879 had an average price of 5 yen per koku (about 5 bushels). Within the past eight months, with a surplus on hand of last year's crop, and good prospects for the coming harvest, it has been selling at from 10 to 12 yen per koku. There does not seem to be any power at present in the hands of the government to fully remedy this condition of the currency. The whole amount of coin in the treasury is thought to be not more than 6,000,000 yen, a sum too insignificant to form the basis of any scheme of specie redemption. The coin accumulations are likely to decrease by reason of the constant outflow in payments of the balance between imports and exports. The excess of exports over imports of bullion for 6 years has been 40,997,763 yen, showing that there cannot be any very considerable accumulation, so long as the balance of trade is against the country. It has been proposed to contract the currency so as to enable the government to redeem its notes in coin; but any such violent change in the volume of the currency as would make its redemption possible, with the amount of coin now or likely to be in the country, would so disturb values as to make the result an evil instead of a blessing.

It would appear that the only possible and desirable scheme of placing the currency upon a specie basis is:

1st. To make such gradual contraction of the volume of paper in circulation as not to produce any violent disturbance of values.

2d. To so increase import duties as to produce a much larger revenue, whereby imports would perhaps in some degree be lessened, and general home production stimulated.

3d. To encourage the extension of the areas of cultivation, by the introduction and use of modern improved machinery, and of artificial manures, or, better still, the extensive raising of stock and the consequent production of the barn-yard deposits.

4th. To open the country and its mines to foreign capital, ingenuity, and skill.

These measures would, in my judgment, produce favorable results and place the financial credit of Japan upon a sound basis. Indications that the government is working in these directions are not wanting, but much opposition to opening the country to foreigners is still everywhere indicated. Much has been written upon the question of the balance of trade being against Japan, and I have myself, on more than one occasion, called attention to the fact that the amount of exports as shown by

the customs returns fell considerably short of the imports, while the reverse is the case as to the special export and import of specie.

So far as the revenues of the government are concerned I think there can be no doubt that this exhibit is a correct one, and that these revenues are suffering by reason of this balance being on the wrong side, but I cannot agree with the assumption so often made here and so persistently repeated by the native papers, that foreign trade is impoverishing Japan. On the contrary, a careful analysis of this trade, I am convinced, will show a large balance in favor of the Japanese.

In the customs exhibits nothing is shown of the very considerable amounts of manufactures taken from the country in small quantities, or as household effects by foreigners, that pay no duties, nor of the very large sums of money expended in the country by foreign residents and travelers, and by ships and vessels of different nationalities. Neither is any account made of the vast stimulus to industry and production given by foreign intercourse. The production and manufacture of tea, silk, and porcelain have very largely increased, and a variety of industries have in fact been created by this intercourse, and all these are growing in importance and value year by year. The policy adopted by a number of native merchants in different towns, to abstain entirely from the purchase of foreign productions, seems to me unwise, and not calculated to effect its object. A wiseeconomy in expenditure and proper discrimination in the character and quantity of purchases is well, but an indiscriminate assault upon trade because one of the parties to it does not happen to be of this nationality is not only foolish, but all experience proves it to be wanting in every element to command success. A large number of articles useful to the people, and salable, are not as yet manufactured in Japan, and wool and a number of other products are not found here, and any attempt to exclude these by combinations of the character I refer to will, I predict, disastrously fail.

The balance of trade, however, is, as calculated by fiscal and commercial returns, such as are relied upon in other countries, against Japan. During the past year the export of specie alone exceeded the import by $9,097,036. So long as this drainage continues no attempt to reform the currency can be successful.

The reserve fund is now 51,325,515 yen, and consists of retired currency contingent funds of debts and certificates of indebtedness to the government.

In 1877 and 1878 the government organized a sinking fund for the gradual payment of all the government indebtedness. The minister of finance said: "I propose that 20,000,000 yen shall be annually appropriated from the national revenue for a sinking fund, and together with the interest accruing from the reserve fund be applied to the purpose of liquidating the national debt."

NATIONAL BANKS.

The decree establishing the national-bank system was issued in 1873. It contained no limitation to the amount of the whole issue of notes, the power of limiting issues being reserved in the daigo kwan or Great Council. It established a bureau of paper currency in the finance department, which was to have the immediate supervision and control of the affairs of the national banks. The minimum capital of any bank was fixed at 50,000 yen.

Before permission is granted for the establishment of any bank there must be five *bona fide* stockholders, the whole capital stock subscribed,

and one-half for establishment paid up. Of the amount remaining unpaid one-fifth must be paid monthly. The bank must deposit eight-tenths of its capital in government 4 per cent. bonds at their market value, to be increased or otherwise as they may rise or fall in value. The issue of notes at par value must not exceed the real value of the bonds so deposited. The bank is required to keep 20 per cent. of its capital, in treasury notes, in reserve for redemption of bank issues. Officials of the government who in any manner have control of bank affairs can not be shareholders in national banks. Each shareholder is liable to the creditors of the bank in addition to his stock in an amount equal to his stock. All banks are forbidden to do any business except legitimate banking. The whole authorized bank-note issue is 34,493,381 yen, all of which is supposed to have been issued. There are 153 banks located in 109 different towns.

The tax upon banks is seven-tenths of 1 per cent. of issues.

Forty-six banks have a capital of 100,000 yen and less than 200,000 yen; thirty-six have a capital of 200,000 and less than 300,000 yen; ten have a capital of 300,000 and less than 400,000 yen; three have a capital of 400,000 and less than 500,000 yen; three have a capital of 500,000 and less than 600,000 yen; one has a capital of 600,000 and less than 700,000 yen; one has a capital of 1,500,000 yen; one has a capital of 17,826,100 yen.

In briefly reviewing the preceding financial statement and analysis it will be seen that the agricultural land pays about 70 per cent. of the taxes, the customs 7½ per cent., alcoholic liquors 10¾ per cent., traders' occupations, &c., less than 2 per cent., income from public works 2½ per cent., revenue from rents and sale of government lands 2 per cent.

In the expenditures the item of reduction of the national debt is about 10½ per cent., the interest of the national debt about 28 per cent., expenses of the imperial household and imperial household department 2.1 per cent., pensions, allowances, &c., 1 per cent., war department 14.7 per cent., navy department 5.4 per cent., educational department 1 per cent. The foreign debt is about 3.7 per cent. of the whole national debt; the domestic debt 96.3 per cent.

The interest-bearing debt is about 64 per cent. of the whole indebtedness and the non-interest-bearing debt 46 per cent.

LOCAL TAXATION.

There is a system of local taxation for the support of the local government.

The taxation and expenditures in the fu and ken (the different divisions of the empire) was formerly entirely in the hands of the local governor, who was appointed by and answerable only to the central government. Now local elective assemblies have been established, which in a measure represent the people, and revise and correct the estimated local expenditures. These assemblies have shown remarkable energy, ability, and spirit, and in some instances have made determined resistance to wasteful and extravagant expenditures.

They are chosen for a term of four years by the qualified electors. Every male citizen of the age of 21 years and upwards who pays a land tax of not less than five yen per annum is a qualified voter.

Inasmuch as the tax is 3 per cent. the voter must own land valued at $333\frac{1}{3}$.

The rate of taxation varies in various localities and from year to year, according to the wealth and exigencies of the times.

The following are the principal sources of local revenue:

Land tax:	
On valuation	½ per cent.
Corporations:	Yen.
On sales amounting to 10,000 yen, or over	15
7,000 to 10,000 yen	13
5,000 to 7,000 yen	10
3,000 to 5,000 yen	7
1,000 to 3,000 yen	5
700 to 1,000 yen	3
Under 700 yen	1.50
Merchants:	
On sales amounting to 10,000 yen and above	15
7,000 to 10,000 yen	13
5,000 to 7,000 yen	10
3,000 to 5,000 yen	7
1,000 to 3,000 yen	5
700 to 1,000 yen	3
500 to 700 yen	2
300 to 500 yen	1
	Sen.
100 to 300 yen	50
Under 100 yen	25
Under 30 yen	12½
	Per cent
Public and private libraries, lenders of furniture, articles of clothing &c., on gross income	1
Commission Merchants:	
On gross commissions received	1½
Contractors:	
On gross receipts	1½
Manufactures:	Yen.
On 10,000 yen and above	15
On 7,000 to 10,000 yen	13
On 5,000 to 7,000 yen	10
On 3,000 to 5,000 yen	5
On 1,000 to 3,000 yen	3
On 700 to 1,000 yen	2
On 500 to 700 yen	1
	Sen.
On 300 to 500 yen	50
Under 300 yen	25

Mechanics.—House painters, clock, paper, and lacquer-ware makers, carvers, image makers, photographs, pen makers, picture painters, match manufacturers, makers and mixers of colors, embroideries, tailors, washmen, gold and silver and tin smiths, pot and kettle workers, blacksmiths, carpenters, locksmiths, porcelain and bronze workers, same as above.

	Yen per annum.
Carriers:	
Carriages:	
2-horse carts	3
1-horse carts	2
2-horse carts to carry two persons	2
2-horse carts to carry one person	1
Wheelbarrow	1
Pack horse	1
Man carts to carry two men	1
Man carts to carry four men	2

Auctioneers:	
On gross sales	3 to 5 per cent.
Theatrical, acrobatic, and other exhibitions in houses, on gross receipts	5 per cent.
Billiard rooms, bowling alleys:	
Archery galleries	1 yen per month.

	Yen.
Eating-houses:	
On receipts of—	
800 yen and over	12
500 to 800 yen	10
300 to 500 yen	6
200 to 300 yen	3
200 yen and under	1.50

	Yen.
Hotels with stables attached:	
On receipts of—	
800 yen and over	10
500 to 800 yen	9
300 to 500 yen	7
200 to 300 yen	2.50
100 to 200 yen	1
	Sen
Under 100 yen	50

	Yen.
Eating-houses in each of which only one kind of food is permitted to be served:	
On gross receipts of—	
800 yen and over	10
500 to 800 yen	7.50
300 to 500 yen	5
200 to 300 yen	2.50
	Sen
Under 100 yen	50

	Yen.
Pawn shops:	
On gross receipts of—	
10,000 yen and over	15
7,000 to 10,000 yen	13
5,000 to 7,000 yen	10
3,000 to 5,000 yen	7
1,000 to 3,000 yen	5
700 to 1,000 yen	3
500 to 700 yen	2
300 to 500 yen	1
	Sen.
100 to 300 yen	50
Under 100	25

Exchange brokers on income—same as above.

Transportation companies on gross earnings—same as above.

	Yen.
Junk-shops:	
On transactions of—	
5,000 yen and over	10
3,000 to 5,000 yen	9
2,000 to 3,000 yen	7
1,000 to 2,000 yen	5
700 to 1,000 yen	3
500 to 700 yen	2
300 to 500 yen	1
	Sen.
Under 300 yen	50

Tea booths:

For tea-drinking, per month, each ..... 50 sen.
Places for sale of ice water, per month, each ..... 80 sen.
Bath houses on gross receipts ..... 1 per cent.
Barbers, 2 yen per year and on gross receipts ..... 1 per cent.
Intelligence officers, per year ..... 5 yen.
Dancing masters, music teachers, street story tellers, and actors, per month .. 1 yen.
Wrestlers, per month ..... 50 sen.
Regular singing and dancing girls, per month, from ..... 1.50 to 3.50 yen.
Licensed attendants upon dancing and singing entertainments, per month ..... 75 sen to 2 yen.

Water-power mills for hulling rice:	
20 stamps and over, per year	5 yen.
10 to 20 stamps, per year	3 yen.
5 to 10 stamps and over, per year	1.50 yen.
3 to 5 stamps, per year	50 sen.
Less than 3 stamps, per year	30 sen.
Live stock:	
Horses, each, per year	1 yen.
Grown cattle, each, per year	20 sen.
Young cattle, each, per year	10 sen.
Sheep and hogs, each, per year	5 sen.
Marine licenses:	Yen.
Junks or native vessels, with a capacity to carry 500 bushels and under, per year	1
Every 500 bushels additional, per year	1
Steamers, 100 tons measurement, each	15
Sailing vessels, foreign model, 100 tons each	10
Small boats, according to size, per year	20 sen to 1 yen.
Shooting licenses:	Yen.
Professional hunters, per year	1.20
Others, per year	10
Horses and cattle dealers' license	1
And for every animal sold	1
Manufacturers of weights and measures, ad valorem	25 per cent.
Druggists, per year	2 yen.
All patent medicines, ad valorem	25 per cent.

Manufacturers of alcoholic liquors.—The tax is levied upon the quantity of rice used in brewing. Common sake (a kind of wine) in each koku (about 5 bushels) used, according to quality of sake made, 2 to 4 yen.

Tobacco.—Wholesale dealer, per year, 10 yen; retail dealer, per year, 5 yen. There is also a stamp tax of 10 per cent. on all sales.

Stamped paper.—All written transactions of 10 yen and above pay a tax of 3 sen; unstamped transactions cannot be legally enforced.

Copyright.—The price of 6 copies of work.

Stock brokers.—On commissions, 10 per cent.

Bankers—On every thousand loaned, 7 yen.

Passengers on foreign vessels, per head, 10 sen.

Houses of prostitution.—License, per month, 1 to 7 yen; each inmate, per month, 1 to 4 yen.

Taxes are collected on the different fu and ken (provinces of the empire), but the expenditures for local purposes must first be approved by the general government.

Since writing the foregoing I have learned that besides the 2½ per cent. general government tax and the ½ per cent. local tax on land, there are various other incidental local taxes. There is a levy for hospital purposes, one for schools, one for roads, one for embankments and dikes, and one for artificial reservoirs and irrigating ditches.

In this ken of Kanagawa these additional taxes on the land amount to 2 per cent., making in all now levied upon and paid by the landholder, 5 per cent.

It is now proposed to raise a fund to provide stores against famine, inundations, &c. This will be additional burden upon the land equal in some places to 1 per cent.

It should be stated in this connection that the assessed valuation of land is very low—it is claimed less than one-half the real value.

I have, &c.,

THOS. B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Kanagawa, December, 1880.

THE MERCHANT MARINE OF THE WORLD.

REPORT BY CONSUL ELFWING, OF STOCKHOLM.

The prominent Norwegian Statistician, A. N. Kjaer, has recently published a book in the French language treating of "*Les marines marchandes*," of which I beg leave to notice a few interesting facts.

The commercial fleet of the seafaring nations consisted in 1879 of 93,400 vessels of 20 tons or more. Mr. Kjaer does not furnish any information for China and Arabia, and regarding Egypt, Turkey and several South American States, he is very incomplete. These vessels measured together nearly 19¼ millions of tons. Their crews amounted to 731,000 men.

Of this considerable fleet, the steamers amounted in numbers only to 11.4 per cent., or 10,700, but their crews amounted out of the whole to 24 per cent. or 176,000. Their tonnage out of the whole amounted to 24 per cent., or 4,641,000 tons. When, however, the transportation capacity of a steamer ton can be considered equal to 3 tons of a sailing vessel, Mr. Kjaer obtains for the whole fleet a tonnage of 28,600,000, of which 13,900,000 tons for the steamers, or 48.7 per cent., and when for three-fourths of the commercial fleet, known during 1879, the tonnage of the steamers increased 9 per cent., while the tonnage of the sailing vessels decreased 2 per cent., the author thinks that in 1880, 51 per cent., or more than one-half of the sea-transportation, will be done by steamers.

Particularly interesting is the author's comparison between the use of steam for transportation on land and at sea. There were, he says, in 1879, about 69,000 locomotives, with a transportation capacity of 20,000,000 horse-power, or about five times the horse-power of the steamers.

But the rolling stock of the railroads, wagons, and cars of all kinds, cannot be estimated to a higher transportation capacity than 16,000,000 tons. The transportation capacity of the steamers is nearly 7,000,000 tons, and, although the horse-power of the steamers amounted not to one-fifth of the locomotives, it was nearly one-half of the railroads. The ratio between carrying and transportation capacity is consequently decidedly in favor of sea transportation.

The transportation capacity of the railroads is only 0.8 ton to the horse-power, when that of the steamers is 1.9 tons.

The commercial fleet has increased during the years 1850–1879, on a yearly average 3.8 per cent. But this increase in the tonnage does not completely state the increase in the capacity and value of transportation as it ought to be estimated at 4 or 5 per cent. a year, if proper regard be taken to the development of the continual improvements in the loading capacity and speed of the vessels, and more particularly of the steamers.

Compared with this development, the preceding periods are very poor. During the decade 1820 to 1829 the commercial fleet increased only ¼ per cent. a year; during 1830 to 1839, 2 per cent.; and during 1840 to 1849, 3.6 per cent. During the years 1817 to 1823 a decided decrease in the commercial fleet may be observed, which since has never happened. The greatest progress took place during 1853 to 1857, when the increase was 7 per cent. a year; then came the two periods of 1863, 1865, and 1870 to 1874, with an increase of 5 to 6 per cent. a year, both followed by a crisis of 1866 to 1869, and 1875 to 1879, with a yearly increase of only 1.8 per cent. and 2.7 per cent.

The most remarkable in the development of the navigation of our time is the great change which constantly takes place by the steamers crowding out the sailing vessels. In this respect Mr. Kjaer has collected and worked out information which never before has been so complete, and which throws light over what has happened as well as over what probably will happen in the future. It is only for about four-fifths of the tonnage of the whole commercial fleet that the author has been able to give sure information regarding this development of the strength of the two rivals, but his figures are, without doubt, entitled to express the whole.

In 1850 the tonnage of the steamers appear to have been 8 per cent. of the whole commercial fleet; that is, when one ton of a steamer is estimated equal to three tons of a sailing vessel. Iron had then already begun to be used more generally in the building of vessels, and the propeller screw came just then in use. In 1860 the steamers had increased to 18 per cent., and ten years later to 29 per cent.

During this decade begin the great improvements in the steam-engines that so much reduce the consumption of coal; and then also begin the steamers, which hitherto only carried passengers and light goods, to transport heavy goods.

During 1870 to 1880 this significance grows incessantly, and in all the seas they compete with the sailing vessels in the freight trade. They have gained on, and perhaps passed, their rivals when they, as stated, in 1880, are supposed to carry 51 per cent. of the marine transport. It is also during the two last decades that the increase of the steamers, which essentially determines the increase of the whole commercial fleet, has been such that a development of the whole fleet has been noted, even under such years as 1861, 1867, 1870–1873, 1878, and 1879, when the tonnage of the sailing-vessels has absolutely decreased.

This successive change of the navigation, which in consequence of mechanical improvements will probably continue, has for different countries a different interest. The author's native country, Norway, is particularly concerned, as its important commercial fleet consists principally of sailing vessels, and it has only inconsiderably taken a part in the growing trade with steamers.

The commercial fleet of the world consists of two great halfs, one belonging to Great Britain and the colonies and the other to the rest of the world.

By the side of the British marine of 2,750,000 tons of steamers and nearly 5,500,000 tons of sailing vessels, or thirteen and two-thirds millions estimated tons in transportation capacity, the commercial fleet of every other country appears diminutive. The fleet of the United States, which has the second place, amounts to only 3,700,000 estimated tons, or 13½ per cent., and Norway, which is the third, only 1,500,000 estimated tons, or 5 per cent. of the whole.

Germany and France approach Norway very closely, then Italy, with something more than 1,000,000, and Sweden with 700,000 estimated tons.

Great Britain, which alone is as good as the rest of the seafaring world, has also several ports which each owns a greater commercial fleet than most other nations. The city of Glasgow gives way only to the United States and Norway; Liverpool and London only to the United States.

The commercial fleet of Liverpool alone has more tonnage than France and Italy or the united commercial fleets of Germany and Italy.

London alone has a commercial fleet five times as great as the Netherlands, formerly the fortunate rival of England on the seas. Of the *old* Hanseatic cities Hamburg only has some importance. It stands, certainly,

high on the scale of the great seaports, but is below six English ports and New York (No. 4) and Marseilles (No. 6). Sweden has the eighth place in regard to tonnage. Compared with the population Sweden will have the fifth place, with 139 estimated tons for 1,000 inhabitants, and before it is Denmark (which in the absolute tonnage has the fourteenth place). Canada, Great Britain, with 339 tons, and in the first place Norway, which has 814 estimated tons for 1,000 inhabitants, or nearly one ton for each inhabitant.

In the navigation of the world the European nations have consequently the greatest power of transportation. They own nearly 75 per cent. of the tonnage of the whole fleet. The tonnage of America amounts to 20 per cent., and what the other quarters of the world can do in the way of navigation depends to no small extent upon the activity of the English colonists. From 1840 to 1850 the commercial fleet of the United States increased more than that of any other country. From 1850 to 1860 the increase was still about 4 per cent. a year. From 1860 to 1864 the fleet diminished one-third, so that it became reduced to the figure of 1850. From 1868 to 1879 the yearly decrease of the commercial fleet of the United States amounts to 0.13 per cent.

NERE A. ELFWING.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Stockholm, October 6, 1881.

RIVER TAX ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS ON THE MAGDALENA RIVER.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH, OF CARTHAGENA, COLOMBIA.

I have the honor to transmit herewith, with a translation, a recent decree promulgated by the National Government of Colombia, imposing an indirect import and export tariff, in shape of a river tax on all cargoes, with but few exceptions, going up and coming down the Magdalena River; which is the main artery of the commerce of Colombia.

The trade of the Magdalena River and its tributaries is estimated at 60,000 tons per annum, or 496,000 *cargas*, of 125 kilograms each. So it will be seen that a considerable revenue to the government will be derived from this source. The revenue is to be devoted to the improvement of the river.

Although the general government, in view of the ravages caused to the food crops by the locusts, has removed the high import duties on food supplies, yet this State still imposes a special tax of three dollars a barrel on flour.

It would be well for those contemplating a trade with this country to thoroughly familiarize themselves with the complicated tariff law and customs regulations, which are continually being changed and amended.

There is scarcely an importation that escapes a fine or penalty.

I would suggest that when a merchant desires to make a shipment to a Colombian port, he should, before making out invoice for same, consult the Colombian representative at port of shipment. Not even clerical errors are excepted by the customs authorities in this country.

EDMUND W. P. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Carthagena, Colombia, October 13, 1881.

[Translation.]

Decree No. 594 of 1881, levying a river tax on the Magdalena River.

The President of the United States of Colombia being fully authorized by the only article of this law 81, of the 8th of July of the present year, and the former ones, relative to the navigation tax of the Madgdalena, destined for the canalization and cleaning of the same, decrees:

ARTICLE 1. From the 1st of September next, 50 cents will be charged on all cargoes of 125 kilograms each, transported by any class of vessels between the ports of Barranquilla, Carthagena, or Santa Martha, and warehouses of Bogota, and *vice versa*, and between intermediate points.

ARTICLE 2. There shall be excepted from the established tax the following articles, viz:

1st. Sugar, rice, corn, and in general all kinds of articles of food that, according to the board of canalization of Magdalena River, may be classified as such.

2d. Ivory-nuts, dividivi, dye-woods, and coarse woods, and other articles that, by their low price, volume, and weight, in the judgment of the board, may be found under the same conditions as the foregoing.

ARTICLE 3. The board of canalization of the Magdalena River shall liquidate monthly the amount corresponding to the river tax it has under charge for the improvement of the drain of the upper Magdalena River, in accordance with article 2d of the law 32 of the present year, placing it at the disposal of the board in charge of the funds belonging to the sovereign State of Tolima for its participation in the salt revenue.

ARTICLE 4. The board of canalization of the Magdalena River shall issue its orders so that this decree may take effect from the date pointed out in article 1st.

Given at Bogota of the 11th August, 1881.

RAFAEL PUÑEZ.

NARCISCO GONZALEZ LINEROS.
Secretary.

THE FUR-SEAL AND SEALING.

REPORT BY CONSUL FRANCIS, OF VICTORIA, VANCOUVER'S ISLAND.

The fur-seal in vast numbers have been making their appearance on the coast of Vancouver's Island and Washington Territory, according to the testimony of resident Indians, from time immemorial. Their presence commences in January, and they begin to disappear in June, and are observed leisurely pursuing their course north, off the coast of Queen Charlotte and Prince of Wales Islands thereafter, and to strike off to the west. If the weather is boisterous they keep well out to sea; otherwise they approach within ten or fifteen miles of the shore.

During a calm and bright sunshine, thousands of them are seen asleep floating on the surface, at which time Indians in their canoes glide noiselessly near, and throw into them a barbed spear, made of bone or iron.

Attached to the spear-head is a line of 20 or 30 fathoms, fitting into a socket on the end of a staff, which becomes detached in the struggles of the seal. As soon as the Indian commences to draw on his line the seal follows, making no resistance until alongside of the canoe.

The Indian then strikes it on the head, repeating the blows until killed, and takes it in his canoe.

Previous to 1865, the Indians took the fur-seal in this manner, principally for oil, using it in their food of dried salmon, berries, and clams. their skins being almost valueless, and appropriated mostly for mats on which to sit and sleep.

It was only after the acquisition of Alaska, and the discovery of the

process of dressing and coloring the fur-seal, that they commenced being an article of trade, and brought from 25 to 50 cents each in goods.

The Indians then preserved the seal skin by drying, and it was not unusual to see their wigwams covered with them. As the demand and prices increased, white traders established posts at or near their villages; and in order for protection, and to secure the Indian trade, some of these traders purchased the likeliest looking female of the tribe, giving therefor blankets and trinkets, the quantity being governed by the comeliness of the damsel. Thus ingratiated, it was an easy matter for the traders to secure all their furs for the merest trifles, and after the close of the season to repair to the nearest Hudson Bay Company's post and dispose of the same for cash or goods, at an enormous profit.

During subsequent years the business of fur-sealing has steadily increased, prices advanced, additional capital entered into the enterprise, and it is now regarded as one of the leading industries of the province. A fleet of vessels, each varying from 20 to 70, tons is fitted out every season at this port and in Washington Territory, that sail to the Indian villages on the coast, and bargain to take those skilled in throwing the spear and their canoes on a sealing cruise, supply them with fresh water and fuel for one of three, or two out of every five, seals they take, and to purchase more falling to the Indians at stipulated prices, varying from $3 to $7, before they will consent to leave the shore; and in all cases return to their homes in the event of a threatening storm. The Indians watch the weather—whereat they are very clever, telling by signs what it will be a day or two in advance—and if seen to be promising, the vessels sail; on reaching the sealing grounds, if the sea is smooth the canoes are launched, the mode of which has been already described. The vessels carry from six to twenty, the largest thirty canoes, and two men for each. It is rarely the Indians venture beyond sight of the vessel, invariably returning on the sea getting rough, or weather threatening, certainly by nightfall, and if successful loading their canoes any time previous, they return and will not leave again that day, numerous and near as the seals may appear. Some of them have been known to capture as many as ten and fifteen in a day to the canoe, or in a few hours, and latterly to receive for their share $75 to $100, and for the skilled ones among them, during the season, from $1,000 to $2,000. They are now appreciating the value of the fur-seal, are posted as to prices, and will only take therefor such goods as are needed at the time, demanding silver bearing the eagle, and scornfully ignoring all other coin.

During the sealing season of 1881, said to have been the most inclement and boisterous ever experienced, there were twenty-one sail of vessels engaged in the business on the coast of this island and Washington Territory, employing between 1,200 and 1,500 Indians, and the outcome is reported less than half of the previous year.

From the north, as far as Fort Simpson, reports come that the season was unpropitious, and only about half the usual number taken.

A large share of the fur seal and sea otter captured in Alaskan waters, south of the Aleutian Islands, is brought to this market and goes to swell its exports, being driven here by the restrictive laws of the United States relative to the fur-bearing animals of the Territory; last season the number was estimated at 5,000, mostly falling into the hands of the Hudson Bay Company.

The prices for fur seal skins this season are the same as last, varying from $5 to $12, according to size and quality, the salted commanding 10 per cent. more than dried, for the saving of that amount in dressing.

At least half the number purchased here are shipped direct to England by way of Cape Horn, while the other finds the same market via San Francisco.

The catch of fur seals of 1881 in the waters south of the Aleutian Islands to the mouth of the Columbia River, will reach, it is estimated, near $30,000. Half this number has been already received here, while only a few have come from the north. The business is rapidly increasing, now claiming as representing a capital of $250,000. Preparations on a more extensive scale are being made for the coming season, and also to follow the seals north with sailing vessels that are now adding steam as an auxiliary power.

The killing of the seal with fire-arms is strictly forbidden by the Indians of the coast, and formerly transgressors were deprived of the privilege of sealing, for a period of from one to three years.

Among them the throwing of the spear is indulged in by the old and young as pastime, and many of them become such adepts as to be able to strike a floating object no larger than a hand at the distance of 30 or 40 feet every trial.

On the coast north of this island they hunt the fur seal with fire-arms and the spear; the former, however, is being discarded, as they find the report of the gun drives them away, and they are yearly increasing the number taken. Within the memory of some of its natives, fur seals in great numbers, on their way north, landed on the southern portions of Queen Charlotte and Prince of Wales islands, and now they attribute their entire absence from these localities to successive years of slaying them by means of the gun.

Recently there has been perfected here an instrument called a catapult gun, calculated to throw a spear similar in every respect to that used by the natives. Its propelling power is made of India rubber, makes no noise, and drives the spear fifteen to twenty yards with great force.

In the hands of the white man, it is claimed this new contrivance will prove very effective; do away depending upon the Indians, who are superstitious and whimsical about losing sight of their native hills and mountains, and enable sailing vessels carrying white men for sealers to follow the seals wherever they lead.

In conclusion, the fact may be noted, that during the season of the migration of fur seals northward, they appear to concentrate on the coast of Vancouver's Island and Washington Territory, extending over a hundred miles seaward, and along the coast for three or four hundred miles. Within this area their stay is protracted, resting, as well as feeding on the innumerable small fish at this particular season abounding in these waters. The past season's explorations seem to have established these facts; and experiments with the catapult gun, so far, have been satisfactory, and almost warrant its success. Upon these data, an entire revolution in fur-sealing on this coast is anticipated. Hereafter, vessels will fit out for the season, and the white man and catapult gun take the place of the Indian, his staff and spear.

ALLEN FRANCIS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Victoria, Vancouver's Island, August 22, 1881.

REVIEW OF THE HARVEST IN DENMARK.

REPORT BY CONSUL RYDER, OF COPENHAGEN.

Herewith find a report reviewing the results of the harvest in this country for 1880, compiled from reports sent in from the different counties; also an estimate of the yield of the harvest according to the returns sent in by the municipalities of the towns and parishes, of the average yield per acre of the most important kinds of produce in each district of the country.

The reports show that for all sorts of cereals the harvest has been very satisfactory; the quality throughout was better than it had been for many years, and the quantity at any rate amounted to a good average yield, while on the other hand the hay and root crops in quantity scarcely reached an average, and the quality was very unsatisfactory.

The reports contain a detailed description of the weather in the course of the year, with its influences, and they show a review of the products and give several of the remarks concerning them.

The second division of these reports contains the calculation made of the quantity and value of the yield of the harvest for 1880.

The different products are hereafter calculated at the following values:

	Million kroners.*
Barley	77.6
Rye	72.7
Oats	66.4
Meadow hay	29.7
Field hay	28.3
Wheat	25.0
Potatoes	15.0
Mixed seed for harvesting	10.8
Pease and beans	7.9
Roots (except potatoes)	5.3
Buckwheat	2.0
Rapeseed	0.2

The year 1880 has according to this yielded a united receipt of 341,000,000 kroners (crowns), which is a surplus of 76,000,000 kroners as compared with 1879, and the largest yield during the last six years, as will be seen from the following comparative table:

	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
	Mill. kr.	*Mill. kr.*	*Mill. kr.*	*Mill. kr.*	*Mill. kr.*	*Mill kr.*
For the whole country	304.7	293.0	273.0	286.1	265.3	341.0
The islands	168.0	166.0	160.8	162.6	156.5	190.5
Jutland	136.7	127.0	112.7	123.5	108.8	150.5

This favorable result is not only due to the extent of the harvest yield, but also to the higher value which the different products have had in 1880, especially in comparison with 1879. Rye was thus 3.91 kroners, barley 0.65 kroners, and oats 0.81 kroners higher per barrel in 1880 than in 1879; whereas wheat was 0.60 kroners lower. For potatoes the harvest last year was more than twice as good, when compared with 1879 (3,300,000 as against 1,600,000 barrels), while the other root crops were only a trifle larger (some 300,000 barrels). Of field hay, on the other hand, there was only harvested 800,000 loads of 1,600 pounds, and of meadow hay 1,100,000 loads, which was respectively 300,000 and 100,000 loads less than in 1879.

The value of the harvest was naturally very dissimilar in the different counties. It was highest in the Odense district (27,100,000 kroners),

* Value in United States currency, $0.26,8 = 1 kroner.

least in the island of Bornholm (where it only reached to 6,900,000 kroners). In all the different counties the harvest showed a considerably higher value in 1880 than in 1879, as the increased value ranges from between 50.1 per cent. (Aalborg County) and 13.1 per cent. (Maribo County). All the Jutland departments especially show a considerably higher value; solely Hjöring district has to be content with an increase of 25.2 per cent., whilst no other Jutland county has less than 35 per cent. The largest increase in any of the island's districts is 27.8 per cent. (Odense district).

For the different divisions of the country, the harvest value for 1880 is computed as follows:

	Million kroners.
Jutland	150.7
Zealand	103.8
Fyen	44.5
Lolland	17.2
Falster	7.8
Bornholm	6.9
Langeland	4.3
Möen	3.9
Samsö	1.4
Orö	0.9

An account of the value of the harvest and the average yield per acre of tilled area of land, as well as per acre of hartkorn,* estimated yielding value according to land quality for the whole country as well as for the different parts thereof, was as follows:

	Per acre tilled area of land.		Per acre of hartkorn.*	
	1880.	1876–'80.	1880.	1877–'80.
	Kroners.	*Kroners.*	*Kroners.*	*Kroners.*
The whole country	121	103	902	770
The islands	147	129	917	805
Jutland	99	82	88	727

For the different counties the average yield was as follows:

	Per acre tilled area of land.		Per acre of hartkorn.	
	1880.	1876–'80.	1880.	1877–'88.
	Kroner.	*Kroner.*	*Kroner.*	*Kroner.*
Copenhagen district	160	141	974	857
Sora district	151	130	937	816
Holbak district	150	131	1,018	884
Maribo district	147	133	827	759
Odense district	145	122	865	736
Svendborg district	142	121	837	719
Prasto district	142	124	855	748
Bornholm district	142	126	1,139	1,007
Fredensborg district	140	132	1,081	982
Aarhus district	117	98	900	749
Veile district	117	97	969	810
Thisted district	114	88	794	611
Randers district	108	97	780	641
Viborg district	96	76	875	702
Ringkjobing district	86	73	897	751
Hjöring district	86	72	957	788
Aalborg district	85	69	446	673
Ribe district	84	70	951	815

*Standard of land tax.

Of the country divisions, Langeland, as usual, gives the largest average yield per acre of cultivated area, and Jutland, the smallest; whilst after hartkorn measure, Bornholm stands first and Orö last, as will be seen in the following summary of the country divisions:

	Per acre tilled area of land.		Per acre of hartkorn.	
	1880.	1876–'80.	1880.	1877–'80.
	Kroner.	*Kroner.*	*Kroner.*	*Kroner.*
Langeland	167	150	970	865
Möen	157	132	962	789
Falster	153	140	860	797
Zealand	148	131	963	849
Lolland	144	128	813	743
Fyen	142	116	848	722
Bornholm	142	126	1,189	1,007
Orö	134	114	658	550
Samsö	132	114	873	747
Jutland	99	82	884	727

As the four kinds of cereals, wheat, rye, barley, and oats play the principal parts in the agriculture of Denmark, their special review is herewith given, and therefrom it will be seen that in 1880 they produced together 241,600,000 kroners or 70.8 per cent. of the total amount of the harvest's value. For the country divisions the average yield in fold and money was:

	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Value throughout per acre.	
					1880.	1876–'80.
	Fold.	*Fold.*	*Fold.*	*Fold.*	*Krones.*	*Krones.*
Islands	12.7	12.4	12.3	13.4	161	136
Jutland	10.9	8.4	9.6	11.4	108	86
The whole country	12.5	9.8	11.2	12.1	133	109

Of the counties in this respect Copenhagen district stands first, with 176 kroners, and Ribe district lowest, with 92 kroners per acre.

Of the different parts of the country Langeland stood highest, with 180 kroners per acre; then comes Falster with 167 krones, Möen and Zealand with 165 kroners, Lolland 162 kroners, Fyen 157 kroners, Bornholm 142 kroners, Orö 137 kroners, Samsö 127 kroners, and last of all Jutland with 108 kroners.

HENRY B. RYDER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, August 10, 1881.

THE CROPS OF RUSSIA FOR 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL DYER, OF ODESSA.

The year 1880 was one of manifold misfortune and disaster to the south of Russia. The winter of 1879–'80 was of unusual length and severity, and caused an immense amount of suffering and hardship.

The cold continued so late in the spring that the supply of food for

sheep and cattle was in many places exhausted, and beasts died in large numbers of starvation. Field work was delayed to a late period, and for this reason the crop, had there been no other cause, would have been below the average.

In many places during the spring there were destructive storms of hail and rain, and during the harvest so much wet as to seriously damage the grain. Preceding the harvest there were destructive droughts, causing much damage, and finally appeared the *Anisoplia austriaca* beetle, which almost denuded the grain fields in many large districts.

The result was that in many places there was almost a total failure of crops, in no place an excellent one, and an average, over all, of even less than half a crop.

There has been a vast amount of suffering, and had not the imperial government aided the people vast districts of the country would have been in a condition of actual famine. Grain has been furnished for food and seed, and public works undertaken for the benefit of the starving people.

But with all that has been done, the result of these misfortunes will be more than temporary, for in many cases the people have been compelled to sell their cattle because they had nothing with which to feed them, and because they must needs provide for themselves the necessaries of life. Such people will be without the means of gaining a livelihood in the immediate future.

In many localities there prevailed disastrous epidemics of diphtheria, which carried away almost the whole child population of large villages. The belongings of such unfortunate families were destroyed to prevent the spread of the disease, and though the authorities replaced to some extent the destroyed property, the people remained largely sufferers thereby. From all these causes, it may be said that the rural population has had a disastrous year. Naturally the cities have shared the misfortunes and hardships of the country.

I am informed that the exporters have fared badly and that they have lost heavily. Contracts had been made by them abroad before the condition of the harvest was revealed, to fill which they were compelled to pay prices that left no margin for shipping expenses, and even left a loss. During some periods of the year prices ruled almost as high here as at the continental ports, and generally the margin has been small.

The United States appear to be gradually closing the markets against this country. In 1878 the United Kingdom had from Russia 18 per cent. of her grain; in 1879, 13 per cent.; and in 1880, but 5 per cent. During those years the United States furnished 56, 66, and 67 per cent., respectively.

American grain is now going to the continental ports and even down the Mediterranean, and ere long will compete warmly with the Russian supply there as in England.

During the year the government was a constant purchaser here and at all the southern ports for shipment to the people in less fortunate localities.

Facilities for loading grain have improved here at Odessa, and may now be said to be reasonably good. No elevators have, however, been constructed, but the business world is beginning to think that perhaps they might be found useful.

The railways are almost as inefficient as always, but the government appears awakening to the fact that some lines for commercial purposes are necessary. Some such lines are now contemplated, and one especially, that will connect the coal and iron fields of the southeast with

the manufacturing districts of the west, it is announced will be at once placed under construction.

Some independent lines of ships have been placed in the Black and Azof seas and the rivers, and an improvement in the commercial marine service is beginning to be noticeable.

Odessa improved wonderfully during the early season of 1880, but many of the beautiful houses built have remained empty.

The cost of living has increased enormously, and may be said to be almost double what it was five years ago.

The landed proprietors of the country are, almost to a man, bankrupt and ruined, and the real property of the country is speedily passing into the hands of the Jews, who manage to make money from it where others starve. They divide the land into holdings, which they let to the peasants, and make a very handsome income of it.

But all these facts are known, and I pass now to some remarks regarding the exhibits relating to the trade and commerce.

EXPORTS FROM ODESSA.

	Roubles.	Dollars.
Amounted in value to	41,991,878 =	$27,994,585
Against in 1879 value to	65,652,008 =	43,768,059
Showing a loss in 1880 of	23,661,130 =	15,773,474

The total of grain and seeds exported in 1880 was 24,153,472 bushels; in 1879 the total was 41,514,020 bushels, showing a loss in 1880 of 17,360,548 bushels.

During the year, under pressure of demand from the United States, 27,784 tons of old iron rails were exported, all for the United States. The freight was generally 25*s.* the ton. The largest regular export article for the United States is wool, which grew in quantity from 186,450 pounds in 1879 to 543,495 in 1880. I have no means of knowing how much of this went to the United States, as it is often shipped to continental and other ports "for orders."

IMPORTS TO ODESSA.

	Roubles.	Dollars.
Amounted in value to	47,774,084 =	$31,849,389
In 1879 they amounted	44,535,150 =	28,690,100
Showing a gain in 1880 of	3,238,934 =	2,159,289
And excluding the exports	5,782,206 =	3,854,804
The total amount of duties collected		3,438,269
In 1879 the amount was		3,326,296
A gain in the year 1880 of		111,973

The increase in importation is noticeable in tea, rice, pepper, oil, fruits, manufactured wool, coals, and implements of agriculture; the decrease, in silk, linen, manufactured leather, iron, glassware, and chemicals.

NAVIGATION AT ODESSA.

There entered at Odessa 783 steamers, with 749,710 tons, and 310 sailing ships, with 81,840 tons, making a total of 1,093 ships, with 831,550, as compared with 927 ships, and 902,360 tons, and 406 sail, of 139,100 tons, making a total in 1879 of 1,333 ships and 1,040,400 tons.

Thus the arrivals show a loss of 144 steam with 152,650 tons and 96

sail with 57,260 tons, or a total 240 ships and 208,910 tons for the year 1880.

The clearances, as per Table No. 10, show a loss as compared with 1879 of 174 steamers of 132,514 tons and 132 sail of 92,362 tons, or a total loss of 296 ships with 224,876 tons.

The ships cleared were 766 steamers with 764,135 tons and 283 sail with 73,270 tons, and a total of 1,049 ships of a tonnage 837,405 tons.

Many ships arrived seeking cargoes and sailed with but small loadings and some in ballast. During the year no American ships arrived.

EXPORTS FROM AZOFF PORTS.

Amounted to $29,968,067 in 1880; to $56,346,709 in 1879; a loss of $21,378,341.

The table shows that at Taganrog and Rostoff $18,917,985. (Table No. 6, shows that there was from Rostoff via Taganrog $10,003,976.)

From Mariople $1,654,114, from Bendiansk $4,891,937, and from Yiesk $914,607 less than from the same ports in 1879.

IMPORTS FROM AZOFF PORTS.

Amounted to $3,264,575; in 1879 they were $5,202,000; showing a loss in 1880 of $1,937,426. The total amount of duties collected in 1880 were $800,954; in 1879 they were $720,215; thus there was a gain in 1880 of $80,740.

NAVIGATION AT THE AZOFF PORTS.

At Taganrog and Rostoff the shipping report shows a loss of 238 ships, with 57,429 tons. At Mariople 38 ships, 10,646 tons. At Berdiansk 98 ships, and 21,905 tons.

During the year freights ruled from the Azoff ports to the United Kingdom 25 to 35 shillings the ton. To Marseilles, 2 to 3.25 francs the charge. To the north continental ports from 28 to 40 shillings, the ton.

EXPORTS FROM NICOLAIF.

Amounted to $14,570,414 in 1880; to $22,686,320 in 1879; making a loss for 1880 of $8,115,907.

IMPORTS AT NICOLAIF.

Amounted to $541,930; in 1879 to $434,073; thus showing a gain of $107,857.

NAVIGATION AT NICOLAIF.

Shows a loss of 148 steamers and 89 sail, a total of 237 ships with 180,878 tons.

GRAIN SEED AND FLOUR FROM SOUTH RUSSIAN PORTS.

The comparative table shows the totals of the above-named articles from all the ports from which I have been able to procure reports. I do

not here repeat the figures, but simply state that the total of bushels less of grain and seeds exported in 1880 was 42,044,331.

These are startling figures, and show to what extent the country suffered by reason, principally, of the beetle and other grain-devouring ects.

VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLE OF EXPORT FROM SOUTH RUSSIAN PORTS.

Shows the value of the principal articles of export, during the year 1880, and shows a total loss as compared with 1879 to have been $42,968,014.

In rape-seed there was a gain of $408,817, and in wool of $1,560,628.

This latter sum is perhaps not correct, as the item of wool was last year reported among "sundries," but the gain in any event has been very considerable.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF NAVIGATION OF SOUTH RUSSIAN PORTS.

Shows that at all the South Russian ports 2,264 ships with tonnage of 1,195,796 tons entered in 1880. In 1879 there were 2,959 ships and 1,680,634 tons. A loss of 695 ships and 484,838 tons.

The clearances from the Azoff ports and from Nicolaif, I have not obtained. They are about the same as the entrances, as ships are sent with great caution to those ports as the cold season approaches.

FREIGHTS.

From Odessa to the United Kingdom ranged from 17*s.* to 25*s.* the ton. To the continental ports a few shillings higher.

From New York to Odessa via Hull goods were carried at from 39*s.* to 42*s.* and 5 per cent. primage. These prices include transshipment to Hull. Goods arrive in from six weeks to two months.

Via London rates were 46*s.* 5*d.* and 10 per cent. primage. The time is something shorter than via Hull.

Unless bills lading are taken through to Odessa, the charges at London are enormous. Freights from Odessa through to New York ranged for iron rails 25*s.* to 28*s.* sterling per ton. For wool 65*s.* to 80*s.* A line down the Mediterranean with transshipment at Palermo or some southern ports would be valuable to this trade.

GENERAL REMARKS.

These reports must always be more or less imperfect, for no statistics are kept at the custom-houses of a reliable nature. No declaration is required of the value, but only the quantity of exports, upon which a small tax is collected for city purposes.

In like manner as the imports pay duty upon the weight, no value is declared that is absolutely reliable.

My reports are therefore only approximately correct.

LEANDER E. DYER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Odessa.

PRESENT CONDITION OF PALESTINE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILSON, OF JERUSALEM.

There is no other country in the world, of equal area of territory, of which so much has been written, and of which so little is really known, as Palestine.

Few persons have remained long enough in the country to make trustworthy observations and reports, or to understand the peculiarities of the people, or the relation of the facts as recorded in different historical eras; Phenician, Hebrew, Persian, Macedonian, Roman, Saracenian, Crusaders.

One book-writer copies the statements of predecessors, and travelers remaining only a few days derive their information from native guides, who know but little English or French, and who, with the fatal infirmity of the Oriental mind, know no difference between fact and fiction.

The English and American newspapers, secular and religious, are full of items of news, and marvelous statements of wonderful discoveries, which have little or no foundation in fact. Many persons are incapable of reading Palestine, because of the habit of interpreting current historical events in the light of unfulfilled prophecies, and thus obtaining support for their peculiar theories, theological and political. The imagination misleads the judgment; sentiment prevails over the dictates of reason.

There is a feverish state of expectation which attaches to events transpiring in Palestine, a degree of importance out of all proportion to their intrinsic value.

Palestine is a small country, without navigable rivers, without minerals, imperfectly watered, and almost without roads, and with a very imperfect sort of civilization, and its fortunes for good or for evil can have but little influence on the destinies of the world. The world—the commercial and the civilized world—has grown larger since the days when Palestine was the battle-ground between the nations of the Euphrates and the Nile. The adventism of the Moslems, of the Jews, and of many Christians, causes them to magnify the most trivial events and unimportant circumstances into grand epoch-making causative influences.

Meanwhile, all things continue as they were. The Orient is unchanged, and apparently unchangeable. The language, the customs, and the spirit of Arabia are everywhere dominant, and whoever has been the conqueror, Greek, Roman, or Crusader, the conqueror has been the conquered. The majority rules in the long run. The European residents become orientalized, enfeebled, and sooner or later yield to the dominant Arabic influences and tendencies. How otherwise can we account for the facts that Rome was overcome by the Saracens, and the Crusaders by Saladin? The Moslem has control of this land. The Turk is the ruling class; his right is that of might by conquest.

The native Arab, the "fellah," is the agriculturist, and is almost the only producer. The village and the villagers are tributary to the taskmaster, while yet retaining under the village sheick something of its original character of government as an independent tribe or nation. The

sheick is the chief justice and governor, and is subject only to the requisitions pecuniary and military of the Pacha and of the Sultan. The wealth of Palestine, the products of the country for use and for export, are the fruits of the labors of the fellaheen.

Of the 40,000 Jews in Palestine, not one thousand, probably not five hundred, are agriculturists. They are waiting for and praying for the coming of the Messiah. They are congregated chiefly at Jerusalem, Tiberias, and Safed. There are also a few at Hebron, Jaffa, and Nablous. They are supported mainly by the charities of their co-religionists in Europe and America, for whom they are performing vicarious pilgrimages to the Holy Land. Their support, therefore, is esteemed to be their right, as much so as the support of the military in the Western nations, or of the ecclesiastics of the Greek and of the Latin churches.

The German colonists of Jerusalem, Jaffa, and Heifa number about one thousand souls. They are Second Adventists. They have organized a society called "The New Temple" or the "Templars," and they are waiting for the rebuilding of Jerusalem. They are industrious and economical. As agriculturists they have not had any marked success, but they are very nearly self-supporting. Their idea is by colonization to take possession of the promised land.

The rich convents of the Greek and Latin churches have large possessions in Palestine. They have a strong foothold in nearly all the most important places, which they hold for Christianity, supported as they are by France and Russia, and which they will not readily relinquish either for the Moslem or for the Jew. The Armenian convents also are wealthy and powerful and enterprising. Thus is Palestine the battle-ground of the religions, Moslem, Jew, and christian, as it was of the nations, anciently, between the Euphrates and the Nile.

The Anglican church, with missions, schools, and a resident bishop at Jerusalem, has also considerable and valuable possessions in Palestine. There is also a mission of the German Lutheran church and of the Friends or Quakers of England. Is this country to be Moslem or Christian? Is it to remain under the control of the Turk, or is it to be transferred to England, or France, or Russia? Or is it to be placed under the joint protectorate of the allied powers? *That is the* question.

And it may be observed that the "standing or the fall" of the Ottoman Empire is by no means a solution of the Eastern question, for there still remains the stubborn fact of 120,000,000 of Moslems impatient of the rule of the Sultan and desirous of a revival of power and influence under a renewal of the Caliphate, with the seat of government at Damascus, or Bagdad, or Mecca. This is indeed a favorite idea of the native Arabs and of the Moslems, who are not Turks.

The government of the people of Palestine is divided between the patriarchates, the consuls, and the Pacha and local authorities. The Pacha of Palestine has a subordinate officer of his own appointment or nomination, called Kaimmakam, in each of the principal cities of the province.

Jerusalem has a mayor and council, and also a judge of the criminal court and of the civil court. The consul is practically a governor and a magistrate, and the duties of his office demand close and constant attention.

The United States consulate has under its care nearly one hundred and forty American citizens. During the last month only I had six cases in the Turkish courts in behalf of American citizens prosecuted by my dragoman, in every one of which the case was gained.

Last year I had three very important criminal cases in behalf of American travelers who had been robbed, two of which were prosecuted to conviction and punishment. The third case failed for want of sufficient testimony, though the guilty parties were arrested. They have been released on bail. These three cases only, cost nearly forty days' labor in the Turkish court, hearing and recording testimony and arguing law points.

The disputes between American citizens, which are numerous, are often and indeed generally settled amicably in the consulate, by the advice of the consul and dragoman, without the delay and expenses of suits at law. Sometimes there are claims for considerable amounts of money, from America, against American citizens resident at Jerusalem.

The consulate has also the care of American travelers during their sojourn in this country. They are dependent on the consulate for orders, permits, Jordan Valley guards, transjordanic guards, and for protection.

The consulate is headquarters for Americans sojourning at Jerusalem; nearly or quite five hundred names are recorded annually in our register. In 1879 and 1880, the exact numbers were 555 and 539. In the traveling season closing June, 1881, the number was not so large, probably because of the return home of travelers in Europe to take part in the November elections, and partly, perhaps, as has been suggested to me, on account of the revival of business in America; many Americans, sojourning abroad for years, having returned home in order to engage in new and remunerative enterprises. As to the condition of the people, I may say that it is deplorable, and that there is no improvement of late years, but rather deterioration, except in the cities where there are missionaries and European residents, as Jaffa, Heifa, Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and Nazareth; but their wants are few; of luxuries they know nothing, and their sense of deprivation is not very acute.

The average cost for the support of a fellah family is about $50, or at most $75. I have made careful inquiry, and the uniform testimony is from 10 to 15 pounds sterling.

The currency of the country is gold and silver, with subsidiary copper coins, the latter ever fluctuating in value, to the advantage of the money-changers, and the damage of the fellaheen, whose small wealth is treasured in the smaller coins.

The principal exports are wheat, olives, figs, oil, hides, oranges, and wine. The orange gardens in Jaffa are justly celebrated, and the vineyards of Hebron are the finest I have ever seen.

Of the manufactures, mines, fisheries, and forests, there is little to be said.

The maritime plain is a natural wheat-field, and is under a considerable degree of cultivation. The mountain range is barren and desolate, except in the valleys, where there are springs, and villages, and fields, or gardens; and over the mountain sides, vineyards, and olive-groves, and fig orchards.

The Jordan Valley might be made a tropical garden, but it is dominated by the Bedouins, and it would require a considerable army and strong fortifications to restrain these fierce Ishmaelites of the desert.

As to the transjordanic country, it is the acknowledged territory of the Bedouins, by prescriptive right and by long occupancy, and it is not within the power of the Turkish Government to drive them back or to dispute their claims.

The time may come when this fine country, once the theater of an ornate civilization, may be reclaimed and made to be again the home of civilized man.

Commerce, which implies the transfer of products, depends, of course, upon industrial resources, and a surplus of products above the wants of the producers.

The commerce therefore of Palestine, a small province, with imperfect husbandry and almost no manufactures, must be limited.

No people can purchase more than they are able to pay for.

The exchanges of products between different countries or between the different sections of the same country are reciprocal.

Small exports imply and demand limited imports; the purchasing power of the people being measured not by their tastes or desires, but by their ability to pay for the objects of desire beyond the range of their own products.

The trade, of course, is with the nearest ports on the Syrian coast, in Asia Minor, in Egypt, and in Europe.

With the United States there is but little trade. The distance is too great, shipment is not direct, and the cost of transfer at Liverpool and Alexandria too onerous.

Of necessity, we import petroleum, chiefly by sailing-vessels to Beyrout and to Alexandria. We send to the States olive-wood ware, mother-of-pearl, Dead Sea stone vessels, and native wood, and specimens of minerals. These constitute our principal invoices to the United States.

The wool of this country is of an inferior quality, and will not bear the cost of shipment to America. It is sent to Germany and Switzerland, and in return there is received a low grade of woolen goods. The manufacture of native cloths is on a limited scale, by a very primitive and rude sort of hand-loom. Still the texture and grade of the native manufactured cloth is superior to that received from Switzerland and Germany.

There is but little emigration to or from Palestine. The people are too ignorant to be enterprising, and the industrial resources are too poor to invite European or American emigration. It is true that Mr. Hoffman, the founder of the German colonies, is now in America, soliciting emigrants to Palestine of Germans resident in the States.

There have been also, during the last two years, three heralds, or reporters or agents. One is now here, representing a proposed American colony, from the neighborhood of Boston. The enterprise, should it be inaugurated, can result only in failure. It is not in the order of nature or of history to remove from a country where land is abundant and wages dear, to a country where land is scarce and titles insecure and wages low. Besides, the semi-tropical character of the climate is not adapted to out door work by emigrants from the Northern States.

The climate and the country have been degraded by deforestation and by consequent failure of the fountains and streams. That the country is capable of reclamation so as to sustain a larger population than at present, and in a better condition, there can be no doubt; but with the apathetic character of the people, and the oppressive and repressive nature of the government, there is little or no progress or improvement now or in the very near future.

The villagers hold their lands under the Crown in common; they are practically inalienable, held by the village, subject to the rent or tax due to the Crown. The people live somewhat on the communal system. The pasture-grounds are common property. The farm-lands are divided annually by the headman or sheik for the plowmen according to their ability, the family with two yokes of oxen and two plows receiving more than he who has only one team. The land is divided into small parcels and each man has his allotment in several and distant places, so that each man has a chance of a portion of the best lands.

Near to the village is the thrashing-floor, and the tax, one-tenth gross in kind, is taken by the tax-gatherer before the husbandman can use any for himself, under penalty of confiscation. The tax-collection is usually farmed out, and, as may readily be supposed, the reports of the extortions of the tax-gatherers are numerous and in many cases are well founded.

The publican belongs to a recognized profession; he is rich, and he is usually the relative or the secret partner of an effendi or of some high official who has a voice in the sale of the right of collection. The government sells for a fixed sum in anticipation of the harvest. The collector takes the tenth, more or less, and often the profit is more than the investment.

The commerce of the country is by means of small coasting vessels, by steamers, and sailing vessels for exports at the orders of the commission merchants, and by the regular lines of steamers, French, Austrian, and Russian, which are heavily subsidized by their respective governments. It is supposed that no regular line, either sail-vessels or steamers even from Europe, much less from America, could be maintained without a subsidy.

The internal commerce is by means of the camel and the donkey—patient beasts of burden and indispensable adjuncts of Arab life.

No one of the projected railways has yet been commenced. Last year Raouf Pacha proposed a system of extensive road-building to Nablous, to Bethlehem, and to Hebron. The road to Bethlehem has been placed in good condition.

Lieutenant Conder, of the Palestine Explortion Society, is now engaged in making surveys and topographical observations in the transjordanic country, the work formerly undertaken by the American Exploration Society, but which was not prosecuted to a successful conclusion. The work was abandoned on account of the sickness of some of the exploration party and for want of funds.

During the spring and summer some important explorations have been made by Herr Guthen, a German savant, on Mount Ophel, presenting ocular demonstrations of a historical fact that the mount was anciently densely inhabited and strongly fortified.

Many elaborate buildings have been unearthed, partly rock-hewn and partly masonry, and the course of the wall around the mount from the font Siloam to the pool Siloam has been defined. Traces also of towers have been discovered of heavy masonry at intervals along the course of the wall—towers which had been brought to light some years ago by Captains Wilson and Warren of the Palestine Exploration Society, but which had again been covered up by the débris of the ages, so that until recently the entire surface of the mount was covered with wheat fields, olive groves, and vineyards.

The recent excavations are important and valuable, proving as they do, as I believe, that Ophel was the site of the lower city of Jerusalem, lying over and against the upper city, or Mount Zion.

A number of assumed translations of the Phenician inscription, recently discovered in the rock-hewn water channel from the font Siloam to the pool Siloam, have been made by Mr. Shapira, of Jerusalem, and by Professor Seyce, of Oxford; indeed, Professor Seyce has published several amended and in some respects different translations, but in the opinion of the best oriental scholars at Jerusalem a correct interpretation has not yet been reached. The inscription is a rude one, the letters are imperfect, and are incrusted with silicate, so that it is difficult

to obtain a perfect impression, and the letters are not in straight lines, so that while one savant reads nine letters another reads only six.

The revelation, if it has been correctly interpreted, is not very important, and it is worthy of notice that there is no evidence, and no one has attempted to prove, that the inscription is not of a later date than the construction of the aqueduct. That the one is contemporaneous with the other is mere assumption.

Articles.	Quarter ending.				Total for the year.
	December 31, 1880.	March 31, 1881.	June 30, 1881.	September 30, 1881.	
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Fancy articles of olive-wood work, mother-of-pearl Jerusalem wine, &c	2,742 49	1,755 46	1,953 76	1,183 10	7,634 81
Total in United States gold					$1,463 97

From the foregoing statement of invoices from Jerusalem, as compared with the statements of former years, it will be seen that the amount of exports during the last year is over a thousand dollars more than during any one of the three preceding years, a fact which shows an increasing knowledge of the people of the resources and advantages of the American markets.

Indeed, the manufacturers of Jerusalem and of Bethlehem have often assured me that they find a better market for their wares in the States than they do in Europe, a fact illustrative of the interest of Americans in Palestine, just as there are more travelers in Palestine from the United States than from all the world besides.

J. G. WILSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE AT JERUSALEM,
October 7, 1881.

DISCOURAGING PROSPECTS OF THE CROPS IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL DUBOIS, OF AIX LA CHAPELLE.

In dispatch No. 7, written under the date of the 25th of May last, I had the honor to report to the department the condition of the crops in Northern Germany. That report indicated a very small grain yield in this section of the empire, although I took the precaution to state that should a copious rainfall occur during the month of June, the evil influences of the long-continued cold and dry weather would in a measure be dispelled. The rain came, and up to the 1st of August there was a remarkable improvement in the crops, but just as the grain was about to be harvested, a cold rain set in which has continued until the present, doing great damage to all agricultural interests.

Many farmers had cut their grain, which was still in the fields when the rain commenced, while the others had not begun harvesting. The exposure of the various grain crops to excessive rains has resulted disastrously to the farmer. To-day all over Northern Prussia millions of freshets of wheat and rye and oats are exposed in the fields, much of which is becoming almost worthless, and at present there are no indications that the weather will change soon enough to save what is not already destroyed.

The potato crop is generally poor, and the great scarcity of hay will compel many of the poorer class of peasants to dispose of their live stock. Altogether the outlook is discouraging to the German farmers who, having had three bad harvests during the years of 1878, 1879, and 1880, are again brought to a realization of the fact that the year 1881, which at one time bid fair to be prosperous, will only end in disappointment and misfortune to all engaged in agricultural pursuits.

Many even predict, that owing to the poorness of the crops and the bad quality of the grain, the seed for next year will be so scarce and of such inferior quality that the yield will not be satisfactory, even should the season be propitious.

In reference to the vine production I would say that up to the 1st of August the prospects were exceedingly good, and promised a better yield than had been secured during the past six years, but the recent unfavorable weather has prevented the maturing of the grapes, thereby inflicting great damage to the vine interests throughout Rhenish Prussia.

JAMES T. DUBOIS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Aix la Chapelle, September 1, 1881.

SHIP-CANAL FROM GHENT TO THE SEA.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILSON.

While the canal system of Belgium is not so extensive as that of Holland, for reasons which will be obvious, yet it is an important factor in the commerce of the country.

Its ramifications extend to and connect every important town and city in the kingdom, and also nearly all those in the northeastern portion of France. The principal commercial ports are inland, and all (excepting Antwerp) communicate with the sea by canal.

Ghent is situated at the junction of the rivers Scheldt and Lys, both of which have their source far over the border in France. The river then becomes the Scheldt, and flows in a northeasterly direction to Antwerp, 60 miles by water, 30 miles by rail; from thence it flows in a northwesterly direction 55 miles to the German Ocean.

A line drawn from Ghent due north strikes the Scheldt at Ternuizen, 21 miles distant; on this line a canal has been built, and this is the ocean communication of Ghent. All its direct foreign commerce is by way of this canal.

Originally, that is, in the ninth and tenth centuries and prior, no canal seems to have been needed to afford Ghent an outlet to the sea, for its

inlets extended from the coast near what is now Ostend and Sluis to the walls of Ghent, a distance of 40 miles, in sufficient depth to enable it to carry on its commerce with foreign nations *direct*.

In the thirteenth century these arms of the sea became filled with sand (*s'ensabla*) by a great storm, and the river Scheldt, turning off to the northeast and seeking the sea via Antwerp, left Ghent far inland, and Damme became its seaport, as it was also for Bruges, which was much nearer.

A canal was built connecting Ghent with Damme, under a charter granted by Margaret, Countess of Flanders, October 24, 1251. Damme continued to be the port of Ghent and Bruges for two or three centuries, during which time their prosperity was great and their foreign commerce immense.

Damme had harbor accommodations for 1,700 vessels, and was not infrequently filled to its utmost capacity. But the final closing of these arms of the sea closed the port of Damme, and all the cities had to seek other communication with the sea.

This closing process rendered the Ghent canal useless, and it was abandoned. A northern outlet was now sought, and a charter obtained from Charles V in 1547 to build a canal to Sas-de-Gaud, which was then the outlet on the Scheldt, on what is equivalent to the present line. Although these arms of the sea above mentioned became filled with sand, it only prevented trade and travel by ship and boat, and did not prevent overflow and inundation, and so these canals became a necessary protection as for commerce. The canal to Sas-de-Gand was completed in 1562, and in that year a boat came from Dortrecht without breaking cargo, and unloaded at Ghent.

The revolt of the Netherlands a few years after against Philip II of Spain, in which Belgium succumbed and adhered to Philip, while Holland, Zealand, and the other provinces established the Dutch Republic, which, commanding as it did the mouth of the canal, nearly or quite destroyed the commerce of Ghent and the canal went to decay; while the religious wars, continuing nearly the entire century, completed its destruction; and it continued without improvement or the prospect thereof for purposes of transportation until, after two hundred and fifty years of separation, the treaty of London (1814) and the Congress of Vienna (1815), upon the downfall of Napoleon, united the two countries, and the head of the House of Orange-Nassau became the head of the government.

One of the first steps taken by Ghent was to secure action looking towards the opening of her canal to Ternuizen (the outlet of Sas-de-Gand). This was commenced in 1823, and completed in 1827. It was the more easily accomplished because of its necessity to drain the polders which had been formed by the dikes built along the south bank of the Scheldt.

But there was to be no peace in which the country could recuperate, for in 1830 came the revolt of the Belgian Provinces against the Netherland Government. The countries had been so long separated, and had been subjected to such different influences of language, religion, and character, that however much their assimilation might have been hoped for it was hardly to be expected.

By the protocol and treaty of the Great Powers, signed at London 1830–'31, by which the existing differences between the two countries were adjudicated and by which Belgium became a separate and independent nation, the boundary of Holland was extended south of the Scheldt so as to include both its banks from its mouth up a distance of

fifty miles inland, thus requiring all Belgian communication with the sea *via* that river to be through Netherland territory.

This boundary crosses the canal at Sas-de-Gaud, and from thence north to Ternuizen, a distance of ten miles, the canal belongs to Holland, while south to Ghent, a distance of eleven miles, it belongs to Belgium.

Although this revolt begot a war in which actual hostilities lasted only four days, after which the new nation became an accomplished fact, patent to all the world, and recognized and guaranteed by the treaty aforesaid, yet kindly relations were not sufficiently established between the two countries for nearly ten years afterwards to enable them to agree upon any plan for the amelioration of the canal. Conventions were, however, then made, and the canal deepened and widened, and locks built which would allow the passage of vessels 190 feet in length and 14 feet draught, and thus it has remained until the present time. The entrance of large vessels to this port, and the consequent widening and deepening of the canal, have always been objects dear to the heart of the Gantois.

This required, first, a treaty with the Netherlands, and here the provincial government was powerless. It could only be done by the national administration.

Diplomatic negotiations were, however, opened, and on the 31st October, 1879, a treaty was concluded by which a continuous canal was guaranteed from Ghent to Ternuizen, the dimensions to be as follows: depth, 21 feet; width, on bottom, 55 feet; at top, 180 feet; slope, 3 feet horizontal to 1 foot perpendicular; locks to be 400 feet in length, 39 in width, and 21 feet in depth; swing bridges, 55 feet in clear.

Land has been condemned, contracts for some sections of the work let, and the work commenced.

The work accomplished has been the widening and deepening the canal from Ghent to Muelsted according to the dimensions aforesaid, and the completion of the new basin at the port of Ghent.

The latter was done by pump excavation, a new method borrowed from Holland, used there in the construction of the new ship-canal from Amsterdam to Ymuiden (pronounced Imuden), but which I cannot stop to describe. It would form a dispatch of itself.

The basin excavated contains 7½ acres; draft of water, 21 feet; banks, 6½ feet high above the water. The work required a year's time and cost $92,600. It is surrounded on three sides by warehouses, or covered sheds, aggregating 425 yards in length, of 26 yards in width, costing $41,800. This improvement is one of which the Gantois are justly proud, not so much for what it is in itself as for being the commencement of an enlargement of their canal, an improvement of their ocean communication, and the heralding of a new era in their foreign commerce; and they took the opportunity of the fêtes of their country on the semi-centennial anniversary of its independence to make a proper celebration of the inauguration of the new basin. This took place last week, September 4.

The King, with his cabinet, was present. He was received at the railroad station and escorted to the docks by the military and 230 societies, with banners, mottoes, and bands of music, &c. Speeches were made and replied to, cannons fired, steam-whistles screamed, and amid the cheers and enthusiasm of an immense crowd, a ship gaily dressed with flags sailed into the new basin, which was thereupon declared open and ready for business.

The city was magnificently decorated and illuminated. In the matter of illumination the Belgians are far ahead of the Americans, and were

it possible it would be of advantage to have managers from here get up the decorations and illuminations for the coming Yorktown celebration.

THOMAS WILSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Ghent, September 15, 1881.

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF COATICOOK.

REPORT BY CONSUL CRAWFORD, OF COATICOOK, CANADA.

In transmitting my first annual report from this consular district but little information can be furnished of material interest or benefit to the merchants or manufacturers of the United States, as this consulate is situated in the rural district of the province of Quebec, and far away from the commercial center of the Dominion.

Agriculture is the leading pursuit of the people, with some manufacturing industries, located in the village of Coaticook.

These industries have been largely developed since the adoption of what is termed the "National Policy."

In addition to a large cotton factory and a knitting establishment, there is now about completed a factory for the manufacture of

BEET SUGAR.

During the past season German capitalists have erected a factory for the manufacture of sugar from beets. Over $200,000 have been invested in buildings and machinery, and the company at this date (October 29) is about ready to commence operations.

By contracts with the farmers some 1,700 acres of beets have been raised at $5 per long ton, delivered at the factory. This being a new industry, the farmers were not prepared for producing large crops. The season has been unfavorable, and not over 10 tons per acre will be produced, and this has been greatly damaged by freezing, and doubtless one-half the crop will be lost by the rot. The outlook for the company is anything but encouraging; so great has been the failure that the farmers cannot be induced to contract for beets for another year, and the company are forced to find land so as to produce their own roots, and German emigrants will be secured for their cultivation. It is the general impression that the enterprise will be as complete a failure as it has proven in the United States.

THE NATIONAL POLICY.

It may not be out of place to speak of the national policy and what effect it has had upon Canadian industries. The revised tariff law went into effect March 15, 1879. As stated by Consul-General Smith in his report of that year, "the prospective increase of the rate of tariff duties induced very heavy importations of merchandise from the United States, far in excess of the immediate wants of purchasers." This being the case, it was too early to form correct conclusions of the effect the revised tariff would have. This surplus stock had to be consumed before protection could perform what the friends of the policy expected. Judging from what they saw in the United States, it was believed that

the measures adopted by them would have like effect in Canada, and build up the various industries of the Dominion.

At the time and previous to the passage of the tariff law of 1879, Canada had followed the example of her home government and been struggling under the system of low tariff duties.

Under that policy, her industries became paralyzed, the balance of trade was against them, and there was a general stagnation of business, her people leaving the country to seek more profitable employment in the neighboring Republic, where their labor was protected.

Upon the passage of the tariff law, which almost doubled the duties on imports, and when the surplus stock was consumed, thereby causing a fresh demand, business put on a brighter aspect. Factories were erected, old and defunct industries revived, and Canada in ten short years came out from under the dark financial cloud, and now the wheels of industry are moving in all parts of the Dominion. Her people are well employed and at wages nearly as high as they could receive in the United States, and the effect is seen in the greatly reduced number of emigrants who have gone from Canada to the United States during the past year, as compared with years previous.

The number of laborers, skilled and unskilled, who left Canada for the United States during the quarter ending September 30, 1881, was 19,346, compared with 45,592 in the corresponding period in 1880. While there has been this falling off from Canada, there has been a large increase of immigration to the United States from other nations.

The great demand for labor in the lumber regions of Maine and New Hampshire has heretofore been readily supplied from Canada. During the winter of 1879–'80 good choppers and teamsters could be obtained at from $6 to $12 per month and board. At this rate there still exists the demand, but it is more difficult to procure the supply, although they are willing to pay from $18 to $24 per month and board.

Before the national policy was adopted laborers went from Canada across the borders by hundreds and thousands, seeking employment for the winter. Now, the lumbermen are under the necessity of sending agents into the Dominion, and it is difficult to procure the laborer.

There can be no other reason than that these men who have made this annual pilgrimage to the woods of Maine and New Hampshire are now employed at home at such remunerative wages that there is nothing to be gained by going to the States.

What goods Canada is unable to supply her own people should be supplied from the United States, and it is the fault of the American producers if they do not secure it. The returns accompanying this report will show how large a proportion of this trade is already enjoyed by the United States, and how small a portion of the exports are to the United States.

Statement showing the imports at Coaticook for the year ending June 30, 1881.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Duty.	Countries whence imported.
Animals:				
Horses ..... number..	11	$323	$64 60	United States.
Sheep ..... do. ..	11	11	2 20	Do.
All others ..... do ...		1	20	Do.
Blacking, shoe		3	75	Do.
Books, printed		122	18 30	Do.
Blank books		27	8 10	Do.
Printed bills		13	3 90	Do.
Valentines and cards		14	3 50	Do.

Statement showing the imports at Coaticook, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Duty.	Countries whence imported.
Braces or suspenders		$126	$31 50	United States.
Brass wire, cwt.	2½	83	8 30	Do.
Other manufactures of		24	7 20	Do.
Grain:				
Beans, bushels	1½	3	23	Do.
Buckwheat, do	10	4	1 00	Do.
Indian corn, do	15,414	8,322	1,156 08	Do.
Wheat, do	230	230	34 50	Do.
Wheat flour, barrels	44	286	22 00	Do.
Brushes		6	1 50	Do.
Buttons		313	78 25	Do.
Carriages and parts thereof		1,446	433 80	Do.
Cement, hydraulic, barrels	22	47	8 80	Do.
Cider, gallons	390	39	7 80	Do.
Clocks		135	47 25	Do.
Coal, anthracite, tons	80	433	40 15	Do.
Coal, bituminous, do	99	505	59 64	Do.
Coal tar, barrels	50	150	15 00	Do
Combs		4	1 00	Do.
Cordage, pounds	577	101	20 20	Do.
Cottons:				
Bleached, &c., square yards	28,002	2,114	596 82	Do.
Duck, drilling, denims, jeans, ticks, &c., do	12,278	2,092	560 36	Do.
Warp, wadding, and batts, pounds	2,432	487	123 69	Do.
Knitting yarn, colored, do	249	99	22 32	Do.
Seamless bags, do	905	181	45 25	Do.
Hosiery		124	37 20	Do.
Clothing		592	177 60	Do.
All other manufactures of		2,322	464 40	Do.
Drugs:				
Acid, sulphuric, pounds	11,195	192	55 98	Do.
Patent medicines		15	4 50	Do.
All other		13	2 60	Do.
Earthenware		417	104 25	Do.
Enameled cotton	12	7	1 40	Do.
Flowers, artificial		95	23 75	Do.
Fruits:				
Dried apples, pounds	320	27	6 40	Do.
Green apples, barrels	1,653	1,724	661 20	Do.
Cranberries, bushels	12½	35	3 75	Do.
Grapes, pounds	83	11	1 66	Do.
Peaches, bushels	3	12	1 20	Do.
Oranges and lemons		5	1 00	Do.
Oranges and lemons		499	99 80	Great Britain.
All other		18	3 60	United States.
In air-tight cans, pounds	336	29	6 72	Do.
Furs, viz: hats and caps		23	5 75	Do.
Glass:				
Carboys and bottles		61	18 30	Do.
Chimneys and lamps		526	157 80	Do.
All other		106	21 20	Do.
Gold leaf		2	50	Do.
Electro-plated ware		708	212 40	Do.
Gun, rifle, and pistol cartridges		14	4 20	Do.
Gutta-percha, manufactures		162	40 50	Do.
Hats, caps, and bonnets		354	88 50	Do.
Hay, tons	3	28	5 60	Do.
Honey, pounds	35	3	1 05	Do.
Ink, printing		7	1 40	Do.
Iron manufactures, viz:				
Agricultural implements		94	23 50	Do.
Band, cwt.	81	363	45 38	Great Britain.
Bolts, do	1	8	2 40	United States.
Castings		151	37 75	Do.
Engines and boilers		600	150 00	Do.
Hardware, builders'		104	31 20	Do.
Bridges, cwt.	754	2,408	602 00	Great Britain.
Sewing machines, number	3	37	13 40	United States.
Mowing machines, do	1	15	3 75	Do.
Machinery, all other		2,171	542 75	Do.
Machinery, all other		4,235	1,058 75	Great Britain.
Mill irons		243	48 60	Do.
Nails, pounds	63	3	62	United States.
Old and scrap, tons	10	100	20 00	Do.
Sheet iron, cwt.	100	444	55 51	Great Britain.
Safes		25	6 25	United States.
Tubing, cwt.	92½	683	170 75	Do.
and steel, viz: muskets and rifles		57	11 75	Do.
Steel needles		277	55 40	Do.
Steel shovels, hoes, forks		78	23 40	Do.

Statement showing the imports at Coaticook, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.	Duty.	Countries whence imported.
Iron and steel—Continued.				
Tools: Axes		$128	$38 40	United States.
Saws		10	3 00	Do.
Scythes		404	121 20	Do.
Edge tools, all other		53	15 90	Do.
Other manufactures of steel		66	13 20	Do.
Jewelry		2,426	485 20	Do.
Leather:				
Japanned ..... pounds	125	51	10 20	Do.
Boots and shoes ..... pairs	78	71	17 75	Do.
Harness		82	20 50	Do.
Harness		144	36 00	Great Britain.
All other manufactures		140	35 00	United States.
Machine card clothing		910	227 50	Great Britain.
Marble, manufactures of		9	2 25	United States.
Metal:				
Babbitt metal		6	60	Do.
Type		16	3 20	Do.
Mineral water		9	1 80	Do.
Music instruments, viz:				
Pianofortes, square ..... number	2	350	102 50	Do.
Reed organs ..... do	2	115	47 25	Do.
Other musical instruments		2	50	Do.
Oil, refined petroleum ..... gallons	24,594	3,517	1,774 34	Do.
Oil, whale or fish ..... do	300	267	53 40	Do.
Oilcloth for tables		18	5 40	Do.
Packages		981	196 20	Do.
Paintings		38	7 60	Do.
Paper, calendered		18	3 69	Do.
Paper hangings		109	32 70	Do.
Paper, other manufactures		339	84 75	Do.
Plaster of Paris, ground ..... pounds	24,400	53	24 40	Do.
Pickles		10	2 00	Do.
Plants		13	2 60	Do.
Provisions:				
Lard ..... pounds	4,854	479	97 08	Do.
Pork ..... do	7,783	756	77 83	Do.
Prepared meats ..... do	200	16	4 00	Do.
Salt in bags and boxes ..... do	25,700	247	30 84	Do.
Seeds, garden and field		1,047	157 25	Germany.
Silk twist		41	10 25	United States.
Silk, all other manufactures of		40	12 00	Do.
Soap ..... pounds	9	1	18	Do.
Spices, ground ..... do	40	7	1 75	Do.
Spirits, perfumed ..... gallons	½	5	2 00	Do.
Sponges		35	7 00	Do.
Stationery		110	22 00	Do.
Stone:				
Rough ..... tons	8	12	8 46	Do.
Dressed		33	6 60	Do.
Molasses ..... gallons	1,587	626	125 20	Do.
Tea, green or Japan ..... pounds	5	4	95	Do.
Tin plates ..... cwt	24	92	9 20	Do.
Tin cans		1	18	Do.
Tinware		44	11 00	Do.
Tobacco ..... pounds	12	7	3 88	Do.
Twines ..... do	80	14	3 50	Do.
Unenumerated articles		609	121 80	Do.
Vegetables:				
Tomatoes		4	45	Do.
All other		3	60	Do.
Watches and watch cases		204	51 00	Do.
Watch actions		78	15 60	Do.
Whips		94	23 50	Do.
Wood manufactures:				
Fishing-rods		25	7 50	Do.
Furniture		187	65 45	Do.
Wood manufactures, other		538	134 50	Do.
Wood lumber		180	36 00	Do.
Willow wares		11	2 75	Do.
Wool blankets ..... pounds	29	10	4 18	Do.
Wool flannels ..... do	79	78	21 57	Do.
Wool hosiery ..... do	10	17	4 16	Do.
Wool clothing ..... do	17	115	30 45	Do.
Total		54,096	13,021 25	

Statement showing the imports at Coaticook, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.	Duty.	Countries whence imported.
RECAPITULATION.				
Dutiable goods		$44,046	$10,739 06	United States.
Do		9,063	2,124 94	Great Britain.
Do		1,047	157 25	Germany.
Total dutiable		54,096	13,021 25	
Free goods		190,465		United States.
		61,192		
Grand total		305,753	13,021 25	

Description.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries whence imported.
FREE GOODS.			
Produce of the mine.			
Salt ..... pounds	12,876,000	$35,499	Great Britain.
Total mine		35,499	
Produce of the fisheries.			
Fish:			
Cod and haddock, fresh ..... pounds	758,048	21,771	United States.
Cod, smoked or dry salted ..... cwt	7,507	41,925	Do.
Herrings, fresh ..... pounds	12,200	157	Do.
Mackerel, fresh ..... do	7,385	371	Do.
Mackerel, pickled ..... barrels	18	124	Do.
Oysters in shell ..... do	38	131	Do.
Oysters shelled ..... gallons	6,143	5,757	Do.
Lobsters, fresh ..... barrels	344	2,052	Do.
Oil, cod ..... gallons	378	167	Do.
Total fisheries		72,455	
Animals, and their produce.			
Horses, for the improvement of stock ..... number	1	100	United States.
Eggs ..... dozen	1	1	Do.
Hair, hog's ..... pounds	100	10	Do.
Hides		950	Do.
Total		1,061	
Manufactures.			
Bamboo		7	United States.
Bells for churches		200	
Cotton wool ..... pounds	865,000	103,560	United States.
Machinery for cotton mills		25,693	Great Britain.
Soda, nitrate of ..... pounds	275,633	10,550	United States.
Total manufactures		140,010	
Miscellaneous articles			
Settlers' effects		2,632	United States.
Total miscellaneous		2,632	
Grand total free goods		251,657	

Statement showing the exports from Coaticook for the year ending June 30, 1861.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries to which exported
THE MINES.			
Asbestos	.....	$25	United States.
Total	.....	25	
THE FISHERIES.			
Fish, pickled ..... barrels	8	68	United States.
Total	.....	68	
THE FOREST.			
Ashes, leached ..... barrels	1,743	179	United States.
Bark, for tanning ..... cords	22,714	108,768	Do.
Fire-wood ..... do.	75	225	Do.
Hop, hoop, and other poles	.....	4,809	Do.
Knees ..... pieces	169	138	Do.
Logs, spruce ..... M feet	2,217	7,337	Do.
Lumber:			
Plank and boards ..... do	16,775	121,059	Do.
Staves	.....	1,588	Do.
Masts and spars ..... number	32	1,670	Do.
Shingles ..... M	5,585	9,637	Do.
Sleepers and railroad ties ..... number	84,375	10,636	Do.
Timber, square ..... tons	410	1,278	Do.
Total	.....	267,324	
ANIMALS AND THEIR PRODUCE.			
Animals:			
Horses ..... number	150	13,125	United States
Horned cattle ..... do	33	255	Do.
Do ..... do	63	5,000	Great Britain.
Sheep ..... do	422	3,065	Do.
Do ..... do	24,472	57,783	United States.
Poultry	.....	2,473	Do.
Do	.....	6,072	Great Britain.
Butter ..... pounds	321,633	61,467	Do.
Do ..... do	25,519	4,268	United States.
Cheese ..... do	220,177	30,051	Great Britain.
Eggs ..... dozen	413,551	53,365	United States.
Grease	1,935	65	Do.
Hides	.....	136	Do.
Meats:			
Beef ..... pounds	175	11	Do.
Pork ..... do	200	14	Do.
Sheep's:			
Pelts ..... number	26	16	Do.
Wool ..... pounds	7,200	2,016	Do.
Other articles	.....	142	
Total	.....	239,324	
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.			
Bran ..... cwt	3,080	1,380	United States.
Flax ..... do	200	2,291	Do.
Flaxseed ..... bushels	12	25	Great Britain.
Fruit, green ..... barrels	2,812	5,759	Do.
Grain:			
Barley ..... bushels	21,649	18,475	United States.
Beans ..... do	44	53	Do.
Oats ..... do	832	288	Do.
Pease ..... do	73,077	48,448	Great Britain.
Wheat ..... do	347,216	332,250	Do.
Flour, of wheat ..... barrels	28,986	153,526	Do.
Oatmeal ..... do	3,975	13,328	Do.
Hay ..... tons	9,304	99,833	United States.
Maple sugar ..... pounds	243	18	Do.
Potatoes ..... bushels	48,516	15,760	Do.

Statement showing the exports from Coaticook, &c.—Continued.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries to which exported.
Seeds, other		$1,038	United States.
Do		3,800	Great Britain.
Straw ..... tons	166	827	United States.
Vegetables, other		1,028	
Total		718,127	
MANUFACTURES.			
Extract hemlock bark ..... pounds	1,386	12,197	Great Britain.
Do ..... do	6,552	50,052	United States.
Iron:			
Hardware		80	Do.
Scrap		1,600	Do.
Machinery		243	Do.
Sewing-machines ..... number	3	84	Do.
Organs ..... do	1	90	Do.
Starch ..... pounds	22,800	1,012	Great Britain.
Wood, manufactures of		809	United States.
Do		6,293	Great Britain.
Do		665	South America.
Other articles		3,671	United States.
Total		76,796	
RECAPITULATION.			
Products of the mine		25	United States.
Do. fisheries		68	Do.
Do. forest		267,324	Do.
Animals and their products		133,669	Do.
Do		105,655	Great Britain.
Agricultural products		577,136	Do.
Do		140,991	United States.
Manufactures		56,629	Do.
Do		665	South America.
Do		19,502	Great Britain.
Grand total		1,301,664	
Exports		702,291	Great Britain.
Do		598,708	United States.
Do		665	South America.
Total		1,301,664	

Statement showing the values of declared exports from the consular district at Coaticook during the year ending September 30, 1881, *and the corresponding period of* 1880.

Articles.	Values, year ending—		Increase.	Decrease.
	1881.	1880.		
Animal	$105,469	$127,824	.....	$22,355
Bark, hemlock	8,090	3,852	$4,238	.....
Barrels, empty	509	226	283	.....
Beets	632	.....	632	.....
Berries, dried	661	415	246	.....
Books	222	.....	222	.....
Butter	1,351	1,914	.....	563
Copper, fine	150,476	170,120	.....	19,644
Eggs	.....	615	.....	615
Fruit, dried	256	2,617	.....	2,361
Flour	750	.....	750	.....
Grains	.....	150	.....	150
Grass seed	1,038	150	888	.....
Harnesses	50	126	.....	76
Hay	23,953	1,464	22,489	.....
Hides	5,957	4,006	1,951	.....
Hops	.....	3,418	.....	3,418
Household goods	10,282	10,445	.....	163

Statement showing the value of declared exports from Caticook, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Values, year ending—		Increase.	Decrease.
	1881.	1880.		
Logs	$21,895	$13,782	$8,113	
Lumber	11,403	12,506		$1,103
Machinery	765	3,528		2,763
Miscellaneous	1,396	933	463	
Oats		2,375		2,375
Pelts		211		211
Potatoes	14,032	405	13,627	
Poultry	2,284	6,210		3,926
Salt	250		250	
Scrap iron	6,962	2,453	4,509	
Shingles	348		348	
Ship timber	200		200	
Spools	3,306		3,306	
Sugar, maple	770	254	516	
Ties, railroad	1,236	872	364	
Wood	1,260		1,260	
Wool		804		804
Total	375,803	371,675	64,655	60,527

RECAPITULATION.

Total value, 1881	$375,803
Total value, 1880	371,675
Increase	4,128
Increase on 20 articles	64,655
Decrease on 15 articles	60,527
Total increase	4,128

It is expected that consular officers "will devote special attention to the methods by which trade with the United States can be most effectively fostered and enlarged, and by which new branches of industry can be introduced within their districts." The question suggests itself: "How can this be best accomplished?" American manufacturers cannot have agents at every port to introduce their goods, and they adopt the only medium open to them, viz, advertising in those papers that have a foreign circulation, and there are several such, and the inducements held out to American merchants and manufacturers are that these journals are sent to and kept on file at all consulates.

Keeping these papers on *file* is of but little use unless they are where the public can have free access to them. Very few people are aware that such papers are on file or that the department reports can be referred to.

In order to give the people of this district the benefit of the information contained in these journals, and having a room in the consulate building that could be spared for the purpose, I have fitted up and opened a reading-room, and given the public free access to it at all hours of the day, and I keep on file all papers and public documents furnished this consulate, together with several daily and weekly papers furnished by myself, there being no public reading room in this city. I am in hopes the people will avail themselves of the privilege offered, and in this way they can be reached, and in time the patrons of these journals will receive some benefit from their outlay in advertising.

JOHN G. CRAWFORD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Coaticook, Canada, October 20, 1881.

FINE ART EXHIBITION IN MELBOURNE.

REPORT TRANSMITTED BY CONSUL-GENERAL SPENCER, OF MELBOURNE.

For the following excellent report we are indebted to Mr. James Smith an accomplished art critic, who was chairman of the Fine Art Jury at the Melbourne International Exhibition:

SCULPTURE AND BRONZES.

Although the exhibits in this department are very numerous it cannot be said that they reach, in any one instance, a very high standard of excellence. As a general rule the statuary is more remarkable for the manual dexterity of the sculptor than for any manifestation of creative power. Many of the works are the productions of artificers rather than of artists; and this is the case with the Italian sculpture, more particularly, as much of it consists of mere *genre* figures, skilfully executed, it is true, but characterized by a vulgar realism which ought not be allowed to intrude itself into such a noble branch of art. Take, for example, a small statue called "The Mask." It represents a Parisian *cocotte* in the garb of Mephistopheles at a masquerade. The attitude is artificial, the expression meretricious, and the sentiment tawdry. But then the artist has lavished the utmost pains upon the texture of the fleshings, the buttons of the gloves, the wrinkles on the *bottines*, and all the accessories of the costume, and these attracted the admiration of the unthinking *ex uno disce omnes*, or, at any rate, a considerable proportion of the second and third rate Italian sculpture. On the other hand, Dupré, of Florence, has sent a fine bronze statue of Cain poetically conceived and effectually expressed; while the "Lynceus and Hypermnestra" of Summers, the "Peri" of Pagani, the "Genius of Franklin" by Norsteverde, and the "Camilla" of Bottinelli, display technical qualities of more than average merit. English sculpture is, respectively, represented by Mr. Marshall Wood's "Song of the Shirt"; by Mr. Woolner's "Ophelia," and by the late J. H. Foley's "Youth at the Stream." France and Belgium both contribute some good examples of bronzes: those of Cambos, Martin, and Ringel of the former country, and of Cottier and Laumans, belonging to the latter, presenting many claims to admiration, both as regards the design of the artists and the skill of the founders. The statuettes in terra cotta, by Mr. John Rodgers, of New York, are also much admired for their accurate modeling and clever grouping.

OIL PAINTINGS.

Upwards of 1,200 canvases, representative of the work of British, French, German, Dutch, Italian, and Australian artists, combine to constitute one of the most attractive features of the Melbourne Exhibition. It is to be regretted that, with the exception of a striking sea piece by P. C. Weber and some portraits by two American artists, resident in Melbourne, there are no examples of oil paintings from the United States. It would have been a source of great delight to thousands to have been brought face to face, for the first time, with the productions of men like Church, Bierstadt, the Giffords, Inness, Homer, Moran, De Haas, Colman, the late W. M. Hunt, and other poetical interpreters of American

'ife and scenery; and to have been thus made acquainted with the picturesque aspects of both, and with the methods of regarding and portraying man and nature, pursued by the artists of the great republic. That gratification, however, has been denied to the Australian public, but is reserved, perhaps, for the next world's fair which shall be held on this island continent.

European art is copiously, rather than adequately, represented in the various galleries. The number of magistral paintings is small in comparison with those of a second and third rate character; and some artists of high reputation, such, for example, as Herbert and Alma Tadema, in England, A. Achenbach, in Germany, and Sienieradzki, in Italy, have not sent examples of their best work. Probably they formed a somewhat disparaging estimate of the condition of the public taste in Australia, and were at the same time unwilling to expose valuable pictures to the risk of two long sea voyages, as well as to that of fire on land.

Regarded as a whole, the Belgian, Netherlands, and German collections maintain a more even average of merit than either of the others, and if in the British and French galleries there are pictures which possess higher qualities than the best of the paintings in the former, there are many which fall below the worst. Honest, hearty, conscientious work, with sometimes considerable elevation and, almost invariably, great purity of sentiment, with, in many instances, the utmost delicacy of detail and a high finish resulting from strenuous and faithful labor, are noticeable in the generality of the oil paintings by German, Dutch, and Belgian artists. They give you the impression of having been produced by men who were enamored of nature in all her aspects and were capable of discerning beauty alike in her smiles and in her frowns, in her grandeur and in her simplicity, in the magnificent sculpture of her icy mountain peaks, and in the soft penciling and tender color of a wayside flower; by men who were leading happy lives in moral and domestic homes, and who, therefore, when depicting the interiors of those homes introduced you to the pleasantest of scenes, and to people who cultivate the virtues of the fireside and respect the sanctities of family existence. Two *genre* pictures by W. Rögge and Max Michael, both German artists, may be instanced as illustrations of the homely and wholesome sentiments. In the first, entitled "A Mother's Return Home," a German *hausfrau* has been out marketing and has come back to find her little treasure, whom she had left sound asleep in his antique wooden cradle, lifting up his head, "running over with golden curls," as she enters the door. Depositing her basket on the floor, she has hastened to his side, and, kneeling down, with a face beautiful with maternal love, she extends her arms to embrace her bright-eyed darling. The scene is quite idyllic in its natural grace and soothing tenderness. So is the "Parental Joy" of the second artist, in which a similar subject is treated in a congenial spirit, though with greater breadth and less refinement of execution. Here both the child's parents are surveying the chubby little occupant of a wooden cradle with much the same feelings of admiration as those with which John Perrybingle and his wife Dot regarded their first born. The attitude and expression of the sunburnt father, as he leans over the table, recall with the utmost exactness the self-restraint of the honest carrier whom Dickens describes as checking his hand when on the point of touching the infant, as if he thought he might "crack it," and as "bending down and surveying it from a safe distance with a puzzled pride, such as an admirable mastiff might be supposed to show if he found himself one day the father of a young canary." It is, indeed, one of the peculiar advantages of an interna-

tional exhibition of modern pictures that it not only enables you to study the methods, examine the merits, and ascertain the comparative quality of the works thus brought into competition, but it also reveals to the philosophical observer the mental and moral characteristics of the race or people to which the respective artists belong.

In the French gallery, for instance, you get among female nudities, now and then as pure in conception as the lovely *La Source* of Ingres, but more frequently painted by men belonging to a thoroughly fleshly school of art, whose chief object seems to have been to pander to sensuality. Something of the same taint seems to cling to Italian art, which is very unworthily represented, however, in Melbourne, owing to the circumstance of a great exhibition of modern paintings being held almost simultaneously in Turin. The result is that, with a few exceptions, the pictures sent out to Australia are of very inferior character, and are signed by artists of limited celebrity.

Brilliancy of color and a slapdash style of execution, which sometimes degenerates into slovenliness, are the salient characteristics of the great bulk of the Italian pictures, while the subjects selected for illustration are generally of a trivial character. British art, it must be added, does not appear, from the numerous examples of living painters exhibited in Melbourne, to have lost any of its moral purity of sentiment nor to have undergone any degeneration of technical ability.

Dividing the oil paintings exhibited into five classes, for the sake of convenience, we will proceed to notice those whose conspicuous merit appears to entitle them to special notice.

1. PORTRAIT AND FIGURE PIECES.

In portraying the human figure French artists display a masterly correctness of drawing, an accurate knowledge of anatomy, and a decision and certainty of touch combined with excellent modelling, which places them, in this respect, at the head of their continental brethren. The "Jezebel devoured by dogs," of L. F. Comerre, is a notable example of these qualities.

Nothing could be more repulsive than the subject or more realistic than the treatment of it. The woman, prone upon the pavement, with her head near the spectator and her large limbs, divested of every article of apparel and contorted by a spasm of mortal agony, exposed to view in all their voluptuous roundness and symmetry. But the magistral management of so difficult a theme redeems the work in the eyes of every artist, and makes it quite a study for all who can appreciate the magnitude of the achievement. Another fine specimen of form is the "Chloé" of J. J. Lefebore, a perfectly nude figure, obviously painted from life and characterized by a purity of line, a grace of contour, and a natural simplicity of pose not unworthy of Ingres himself. Of T. Lobrichon, whose children are as beautiful as those of Bouguerreau, there are two admirable works: the one entitled "A Covey," representing a handsome mother with her three beautiful reproductions of herself, the youngest of them nude, full of life and glowing with health; the group is charmingly arranged and the general brilliancy of the composition is heightened by the panel of amber-colored satin, which forms its background. The other picture is called "The Child's Dream." It depicts a chubby little fellow, upon whom sleep has fallen with a sweet surprise, surrounded by such objects as might be supposed to occupy his waking thoughts.

The abandon of the attitude, the rosy warmth of the softly rounded

limbs, the beauty of the head and face, with its wealth of golden hair falling in flowing lines over a crimson velvet cushion, and the rich adjuncts of the figure combine to give the picture an aspect of sumptuousness.

But as a grandiose composition, not unworthy to rank with the monumental works of Delaroche and Flandrin in France, and of Kaulbach in Germany, the cartoon by Sir Frederick Leighton, F. R. A., entitled "The Arts of War" has no compeer in the exhibition.

The scene is laid in an armorer's yard in one of the fortified towns of mediæval Italy. Nearly sixty figures are introduced, and grouped so as to fall into harmony with the lines of a lunette. It is painted in what is known as "spirit fresco," and the general effect of the monochrome is that of a highly magnified sepia drawing. The men, in the close fitting costumes of the early renaissance, are buckling on their armor, selecting weapons, testing swords, trying arquebuses, burnishing shields, and unfolding ensigns, and the women are busily plying their needles upon tabards and banners. All is animation, without confusion, and naturalness of arrangement, without any sacrifice of sympathy.

Mr. Marcus Stone's "Appeal for Mercy" forms one of the chief attractions of the British gallery. It is a pathetic narrative of a painful story. It represents an incident of '92 in Paris. An officer of the convention has entered the house of a *suspected* and is examining some compromising correspondence, with his back to the spectator. Leaning his coarse and brutal face upon his scraggy arms outspread upon a table, a ruffianly *sans culotte* is seen gloating over the mental agony of the wife of the aristocrat, who is kneeling in an attitude of supplication and despair, with her hands clenched convulsively on the seat of a Louis Quinze chair, the yellow satin of which reflects a golden light on her breast; her eyes are red with weeping, and her beautiful face is haggard with anxiety, and touched in every line and feature with a tragic interest. Of a more cheerful complexion is "The Foundlings" of Haynes Williams, a picture of which the scene is laid outside the principal entrance of an orphanage in Spain. Streaming from the porch are thirty young girls, who are about to make their annual parade on the principal thoroughfares of the city, upon which occasion any one of them was open to an eligible offer of marriage. Already a young fellow, in his festival garb, is presenting himself to a pretty blonde, with a ray of sunshine lighting up her blushing countenance, while an elderly beau is to be seen ogling the foundlings through his eyeglass, and pondering long and choosing late. Each of the orphans is skillfully individualized, and on the face of each it is possible to read the widely different emotions with which they regard this sort of matrimonial marketing.

M. Portaels, the distinguished director of the academy in Ghent, contributes a striking study of a woman of Morocco, painted almost in monochrome, with only two bright notes of color casually introduced. The head and shoulders of the woman, thrown into shadow by a broad hat, are painted with equal sobriety and power. The soft texture of her robe, the simple and massive folds into which it falls, the natural and dignified ease of her pose, and the preternaturally cute face of the swarthy baby, strapped behind her back, whose head peers out and looks upon the world with a dumb curiosity and a bright intelligence, combine to augment the interest and heighten the verisimilitude of the picture as a work of art.

"A Modern Bacchante," by C. E. Perugini, representing a Kentish brunette in one of the picturesque hop gardens of that beautiful English county, and a charming Lady Teazle, by T. F. Dicksee, must also be

singled out for special commendation among the portrait and figure pieces of the exhibition.

2. HISTORICAL AND GENRE.

One of the finest historical pictures in the British gallery is D. W. Wynfield's "Death of George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham," assassinated by Fulton." The dead man is extended on a banqueting table, in a banqueting chamber, with an open gallery running around it; a dim twilight fills the chamber, and through the gloom the figures of the Duchess and the Duke's sister are visible descending the stairs, while in the opposite corner, an open door conducts into a sunny little anteroom, where the motion of a pendulum and the suggested ticking of a clock upon the wall, offer a startling contrast to the stillness of the heart that so lately throbbed with exuberant life. The technical qualities of this impressive picture are very fine; and, as a piece of *chairos-curo*, it is worthy of one of Rembrandt's best disciples.

Sir John Gilbert's stirring representation of the final charge at the Battle of Naseby, deserves to be classed with the best productions of his pencil. It shows the northern horse under Langdale broken by the superior weight of the Ironsides, while Rupert, rallying a regiment of cavalry, and causing his trumpeter to sound the *pas de charge*, is seen flinging himself upon the enemy with characteristic impetuosity; men and horses, inflamed by the ardor of conflict, plunge into the *melée* as if they courted death; and the whole composition is full of fire and spirit.

In the "Gordon Riots," by Seymour Lucas, the artist has graphically portrayed the military firing on the fanatical mob in Bloomsbury Square. One platoon has just discharged its muskets, and the men next in rank are preparing to take aim; some of the insurgents are wounded, while others are falling back. In the foreground of the picture are to be seen numerous articles stolen from a house that has been sacked by the rioters, two of whom have been struck down by the side of their plunder, while a wounded soldier is being tended by an army surgeon.

Of the genre pictures, one of the most remarkable is a street scene at the east end of London, by F. Barnard, crowded with figures, most of them portraits, and all of them types of the lower and lowest classes of White Chapel and Houndsditch. The time is a foggy November evening, and the occupation of most of them that of marketing. More veracious than Gavarni's pictures of the the same people, and with something of the weird effect which Doré introduced into his London scenes, the composition is painful in its unexaggerated realism.

As a pathetic narrative "The Last Stage of Coco," by P. M. Beyle, a French artist, leaves nothing to be desired. On a black wintry day, the ground white with snow, and the atmosphere thick with congealed vapor, through which the spires of a provincial city are dimly visible, a traveling showman's horse has fallen dead; its owner surveys the situation with a grim resignation to the inevitable; his wife regards the faithful animal with a face full of grief; and a poor little dog squatted near the head of his old companion seems sorely perplexed by the mystery of death. Sterne could not have told the touching story better than the artist has done.

Of a more cheerful complexion is the "When the Teacher's Back is Turned," by J. Taanman, a Dutch artist. It represents the interior of a village school, with the dominie intent upon his task of inscribing a lesson on the blackboard, while a score or so of rosy-cheeked, flaxen-

haired children of both sexes embrace the opportunity to neglect their books and indulge in pastime and gossip. The soft, sweet, summer air is wafted in through the open window, and the bright faces of the happy youngsters are instinct with health and radiant with cherfulness. The sight of such a picture is as good as a mental and moral tonic. Equally pleasing in its way is M. F. Barnard's "Scene from Barnaby Rudge," in which Dolly Varden, with "breath all incensed, and with cheek all bloom," is depicted as having just come down to breakfast, and being chucked under the chin by Old Gabriel, who looks at her with undisguised admiration, while Sim Tappertwit regards them both with a morose expression of countenance and heart full of spleen and envy.

3. LANDSCAPES AND SEA PIECES.

The Melbourne Exhibition was rich in oil paintings of this class, and as regards both the sentiment and the interpretation of nature, it would be difficult to decide which nation carried off the palm. In point of *technique* Germany and Belgium may justly claim to stand in the first rank. One could not but admire the honest solidity of the brush-work, and the admirable skill with which the artists of both countries had applied themselves to express upon canvas not merely the external forms but the essential spirit of the scenes portrayed.

Nothing could be more tender in sentiment or poetical in feeling than "The Evening" of R. Von Poschinger, or "The Midday Rest of a Drove of Cattle" of Karl Ludwig. In the former the sun is seen setting behind a clump of leafy trees, behind which the western sky is glorious with bars of purple cloud edged with lustrous gold, while in the fading glow of the fleecy sky above the wan light of the young moon is faintly visible. A placid pool of water, fringed by aquatic plants and framed by meadows knee-deep in grass, gives back a soft reflection of the tranquil heavens overhead.

The second picture is purely sylvan, and might have served as an illustration of "As you like it," or of "Ivanhoe." A grove of stately oaks, with a herd of kine placidly enjoying the coolness and shade furnished by their broad umbrageousness; a meandering stream, with a rustic bridge, and bright glimpses of a sunny landscape in the background, just visible through beautiful arcades bathed in an atmosphere of warmth, and tempered by a cool breeze that follows the windings of the brook: these constitute the simple elements of a composition, charming alike by reason of the natural objects portrayed and by the evident sympathy of the artist for his subject. Louis Donzette's "Venice by moonlight" is a remarkably effective treatment of a hackneyed subject. large in style, bold in its scheme of color, and unconventional in the methods of execution.

Two fine wintry landscapes by S. Koken, a characteristic little piece by A. Achenbach, an evening scene in a convent garden by E. Hellrath, a misty morning in a mountain forest by Van Sharkenborgh, a grandly painted sketch of dreamy woodland by D. Langko, a clever autumnal storm by C. M. Strecker, and a fine effect of diffused light towards sunset, on the coast of the Isle of Wight, by H. Eschke, are among the more noticeable paintings of this class in the German gallery.

The best two landscapes in the Belgium collection are from the easel of F. Bossnet; the one representing Granada, and the other Xeres. Both are remarkable for the warmth and brilliant transparency of their atmospheres, the accuracy of their architectural perspective, and the vividness of their local color. The buildings seem to glow with the heat

which they have absorbed from the afternoon sun, and yet there is nothing garish or glaring in the tone of either.

Out of a number of pictures of this class in the French gallery, the only one claiming special commendation is a snow scene, by A. Defaux. It represents the edge of a forest, where some pigs and poultry have huddled together, and the branches are heavy and the rough ground is white with a soft blanket of new-fallen snow, while the slaty-gray of the raw cold sky denotes that more is impending. The sensation of chilliness is so well conveyed by the artist that you seem to feel "an eager and a nipping air" blow upon you from the canvas. In a secondary rank to this, as works of landscape art, are G. Grignard's "Amid the snow in Brittany"; H. Bonnefoy's "Threatening weather," representing a flock of sheep being hurriedly driven from their mountain pasture to a sheltering valley, with a tempest rising behind them; and J. J. Veyrassat's "Last load," depicting a pleasant landscape bathed in the tawny light of an autumnal evening, with a four-horse harvest wagon accompanied by jocund reapers and gleaners, bearing home its wealth of golden sheaves.

Among the landscapes and sea-pieces by British artists, the work which engages the greatest amount of attention is one representing some salmon fishers hauling in their nets on Loch Fyne. It is a magistral study by Colin Hunter of shoal water seen under the influence of diffused light, which shimmers on the wrinkled surface of the lake, while in the distance a gleam of sunshine breaking through a cloud rift traces a path of silver on the bosom of the tremulous expanse. Painted with a rich impasto, so that the color lays on the canvas in ridges and hollows, the picture is quite a *tour de force.*

Another sea-scape, full of breezy motion and briny freshness, is entitled "Off Dort," by James Webb. The waves crested with foam; the buoy, that seems to rise and fall with the swell of the sea; the lugger, racing along under a fair wind; the hurrying clouds; the white gulls, dipping and soaring, and the bright and bracing atmosphere which envelopes the whole scene, combine to make it one of the most attractive works of the kind in the exhibition. "All Among the Barley," by E. H. Fahey, an exceedingly difficult subject successfully treated; two Egyptian landscapes, by F. Goodall; a towing path on the Thames, by F. E. Cox; the "Hampshire Hatches," by G. Chester; and a bright little picture of Burnham Beeches, beloved of the poet Grey, by W. Luker, are deserving of mention as possessing conspicuous merit among a crowd of works falling within this category.

The artists of Australasia, like their British prototypes, exhibit a special fondness for landscape art; but among the painters in oils there are only three who can legitimately claim a place in the front rank. These are Louis Buvelot, a Switzer by birth; Eugene von Guerard, who was born in Vienna and educated in Italy, and H. Johnson. New Zealand has also produced a brilliant water-color draughtsman in the person of John Gully, whose views of the magnificent scenery of the three islands which compose that colony are no less admirable for their fine technical qualities than for their conscientious truth to nature.

4. ANIMALS AND STILL-LIFE.

There are numerous very fine examples of animal painting by English Belgian, and German artists, more particularly in the exhibition.

The veteran T. S. Cooper, R. A., has contributed one of his happiest efforts, entitled "Amongst the Rocks, Glencoe." It represents a group

of black-faced Highland sheep in the rugged and snow-encumbered pass of that name. Besides the admirable qualities perceptible in the drawing and color of the animals, all the accessories of the scene—the cold, lusterless sunshine, the transparent shadows, the misty effect produced by snow when it is raised in the shape of fine dust by the tramping of feet, and the vapory atmosphere filling a distant ravine—are all put in with masterly power. The excellence of this work tends, in some degree, to weaken by comparison the claims to admiration preferred by four clever animal pieces from the brush of R. Ansdell, R. A.; but they do not lessen the charm of Mr. R. Beavis's "Bedouin Caravan" and "Threshing Floor at Gilgal," each of them the result of careful studies of camels *en route*, and of the oxen of Asia Minor when engaged in the primitive practice of treading out the corn.

Belgium has contributed three very fine animal paintings; one of these, "A Change of Horses," by E. de Pratére, might have been easily mistaken for one of Rosa Bonheur's. Four sturdy Flanders roadsters, capitally modeled, are on their way from a stable outside a Flemish city to the diligence inside the gates. As we have said elsewhere, "each is instinct with life and motion; each has a character and an individuality of its own, while the technical qualities of the work denote the practiced hand of a master.

The anatomy, drawing, texture, and arrangement of the quartette are admirable; their rough coats denote both the climate and the season. In the execution of them there is nothing niggling or minute, and yet they have all the effect of high finish without any sacrifice of breadth and freedom. The vapor that passes from them by transpiration is condensed into little clouds by the very atmosphere, and is expressed with a truth to nature indicative of vigilant observation and accuracy and decision of touch. Through the raw, dense air, thick with congealing moisture, the skeleton trees loom dim and spectral, and the hard, white snow, crisp and crystalline, seems to crackle under the hoofs as they trot briskly over its bright surface and cast shadows of the hue of steel upon its glittering expanse.

The second work, from the easel of C. Tschaggeny, is entitled "*Au feu.*" A horse, worthy to have figured on the frieze of the Parthenon, is startled by the ruddy glare of a conflagration which is seen reflected from his dappled coat. He shrinks back in a paroxysm of terror with a look of human agony in his face, and his dilated eye, his expanded nostrils, his swollen veins, tense muscles, and quivering flanks are full of painful expression. The lurid light of the approaching flames invades the somber gloom of the stable in which the noble animal is confined, and its sullen radiance is sufficiently subdued to prevent any garish and violent contrast of color. "A meadow in Flanders," by L. Robbe, shows that the traditions of Albert Cuyp and Paul Potter are still vital in the Low Countries, and that in point of *technique* there are living artists whose works will not discredit those of their great precursors. Among similiar pictures by German painters the most noteworthy are the "Ploughing Oxen," by E. Ockel, a canvas bearing the same title, by E. Ochme, and a group of animals by Karl Roux.

In the French gallery, this department of art is represented chiefly by D. F. de Vuilefroy's "Market in Picardy," and by E. Bayard's "On the way to the Shambles" during the siege of Paris. The former is a picture full of animation and variety, well composed and clever both in drawing and color, and not less so as regards the portrayal of the dusty atmosphere. The second represents a drove of superannuated horses being driven across the Seine to the abattoirs in the gray light of a raw

and chilly morning, and as meeting a couple of ambulances on their way from the outposts to the hospital inside the city. As a souvenir of a painful episode in the history of the French capital in our own times, the picture possesses an interest which is quite pathetic.

5. ARCHITECTURAL PAINTINGS AND DRAWINGS.

The only oil-painting of conspicuous excellence in this department of art is an interior of Strasburg Cathedral, by Wyke Bayliss, F. S. A., which seems to have been inspired by the noble lines which Longfellow has consecrated to this imposing monument of mediæval architecture. It is a picture combining the grandiose drawing of the late David Roberts with the finely discriminated detail of Louis Haghe. The far-reaching architectural perspective; the multiplicity and sumptuousness of the sculpture; the scattered lights, broken, colored, softened, and refracted by the richly-tinted media of ruby, emerald, amethyst, and sapphire; the dim twilight hovering about the vaulted roofs, with their carved bands and bosses, and partially veiling the receding aisles; the subdued glory of the great oriel window "flamboyant with a thousand gorgeous colors; the purple gloom of some of the distances; the chastened splendor of the altar-pieces and acclesiastical vestments; the delicate tracery of the lace-like canopies overshadowing the stately figures of saints and martyrs; the lucent gleam of the fresher statuary; the graceful beauty of what is known as "the pillar of angels"; and the metallic glitter of the furniture and ornaments of the high altar, combine to produce a most impressive *ensemble*, every feature of which has been filled in with caressing care, and co-ordinate with the happiest skill, helping you to feel the truth of Prince Henry's words in the "Golden Legend":

> The architect
> Built his great heart into the sculptured stones,
> And with him toiled his children, and their lives
> Were builded, with his own, into the walls,
> As offerings unto God.

Of purely architectural drawings, there are about a hundred, sent in by British architects chiefly; and exhibiting a general tendency towards eclecticism, combined with a noticeable dearth of original design.

6. WATER-COLOR DRAWINGS.

English artists continue to maintain the high position they have achieved in this department of art; although there is a notable departure from the use of transparent washes only, and a tendency to the employment of opaque colors, and to the production of the solid effects obtainable by oils. A highland landscape by A. W. Hunt, a portrait group by Sir John Gilbert, Wyke Bayliss' "Interior of St. George's Chapel, Windsor," E. H. Cowbold's "Entry of Henry the Fifth into London, after the Battle of Agincourt," Callow's "Town Hall, Padua," and Hubert Herkomer's large portrait of Alfred Tennyson, are all strong, solidly painted pictures, owing much of their force and substance to the liberal use of body colors. A fine sea piece by E. Hayes, R. H. A., a couple of charming landscapes by H. Chevalier, an artist who first made his mark in Australia, and some clever drawings by E. A. Goodall, J. A. Houston, O. W. Brierly, J. Magford, J. Absalon, E. G. Warren, and E. Horgitt, may be singled out for special commendation, while the two architectural interiors by Louis Haghe and Miss Clara Montalba, respectively, and a

cloister scene by Carl Haag, are admirable examples of the work of these distinguished artists

In the Italian gallery, there is one water-color drawing possessing qualities which cause it to stand out brilliantly from the mediocre productions by which it is surrounded. This is the "Public Letter Writer" of Pubblis de Tommasi, vigorous and accurate in drawing, rich, yet not garish in color, simple and natural in composition, and expressive in sentiment and character; the work is one which excites general interest on account of its subject, and attracts much admiration for its high technical merits.

There are also two figure drawings—a Roman *contadino* and *contadina*, by Cipriani, which, though exceedingly sketchy, are full of power.

7. ENGRAVINGS.

Of line engravings, etchings, and lithographs, the examples exhibited are numerous, and it would be extremely difficult to determine to which country, Great Britain, France, Belgium, or Germany, would rightfully belong the palm of excellence. Nothing could be finer in their way than Debaraches' "Girondins," as interpreted by E. Giradet, or Malles's "Last Victim of the Terror" from the burin of P. Giradet, in the French gallery; while Brunet, Debaisnes, Champollion, Courtry, Flameng. Hildebrand, Jacquemart, and Labaune are also worthily represented by engravings after Constable, Jerome, and Leonardo da Vinci.

What strikes one chiefly about the French engravings is the sympathetic spirit in which most of them seem to have been executed. They are not literal translations, but congenial renderings, in which you not only obtain the composition, drawing, and light and shade of the original paintings, but a hint of their color also. This is most observable in the etchings, however, which are characterized by a fine play of color from a soft-gray to a velvet-black, and by a force and vigor of which English works of this kind are too often deficient, because they are sacrificed to mere prettiness, and to theatrical contrasts of high lights and deep shadow. There are some fine etchings, nevertheless, in the British gallery, representing four episodes in the battle of Trafalgar, by A. Ballin; thirteen clever transcripts of scenery in the valley of the Thames, by A. Evershed; three portraits of English statesmen, by L. Lowenstein, full of character and vitality, and six etchings by J. P. Heseltine. Unfortunately they are hung, like the ten line engravings by T. O. Barlow, A. R. A., after Millais, Phillip, Sant, and R. Lehmann, in a comparatively dark staircase, so that visitors have no opportunity of becoming adequately acquainted with their merits.

Belgium only sent a small number of engravings, the subject of one of them being the madness of Hugues van der Goes, a painful theme skillfully treated, by A. Dause; while Germany contributed a few on copper by R. Schuster, and H. Würtzburg, exceedingly delicate in execution, and remarkable for their atmosphere and distance, but cold and colorless.

Of oleographs and chromo-lithographs, the name is legion. They confront you wherever there is any wall space available for their display in the Austrian and German courts; and they are of all shades of quality, from highly deceptive imitations of oil-painting down to gaudy and glaring abominations, which make the eye ache to look upon. Those of Prang & Co., of Boston, United States, take rank in the first line,

and carry off a silver medal. Nearest to these come the productions of the house of Hölzel in Vienna, and the firm of Kaufman Co., of Berlin.

8. PHOTOGRAPHY.

In this branch of science and art combined, there seems to be a general advance along the whole line in all parts of the world. Those who follow it are "still achieving, still pursuing," and as the chemistry of light and the laws of optics come to be more thoroughly understood, photography marches on from triumph to triumph, and the sun is more and more frequently impressed into the service of mankind for the portrayal of those natural objects which he vitalizes with his beams and colors with his radiance.

Not more than forty years have elapsed since the first daguerreotypes were taken in the United States by Professor Morse, assisted by Professor Draper, both of whom have achieved distinction in other departments of science; and to-day we have photography almost indispensable to the astronomer, to the meteorologist, to the geographical explorer, to the engraver, to the painter in porcelain, and even to the administrators of justice. It popularizes art, it brings the distant and the inaccessible near, and it gratifies the most sacred affections of the human heart by depicting and preserving for us the lineaments of those we love in life, or whose memories we cherish after they have passed away.

The photographic exhibits in the Melbourne Exhibition are exceedingly numerous and as a general rule exceedingly good. In portraiture, those of Borelli, of Rome, are remarkable for their magnitude, while those of Bradley and Rulofson, of San Francisco, have no superiors as cabinet-sized pictures. It is due to the photographers of the chief Australian and New Zealand cities to state, however, that the best of their productions are found to be equal to those of the most famous houses in Europe.

Nor will it be uninteresting to remark that an American, Mr. Batchelder, was the pioneer of this branch of art-industry in Melbourne, and that most of the photographers who have since made their mark in this city were trained in his establishment, which still, although it has passed into other hands, stands at the head of the profession.

Among the British exhibits, those of Lieut. Col. H. Stuart Wortley, Vernon Heath, and F. Frith & Co. justly challenge general admiration; while the architectural and landscape views, by Brogie, of Florence, are of an equally high order of excellence. Viewed as a whole, it may be said that photography, as illustrated by operators in Europe, America, Asia, and the British colonies, who sent in the choicest specimens of their work to the Melbourne Exhibition, is making steady progress, more especially as regards its application to landscape delineation. Not only is it gaining in greater definition of form and fullness of detail, but in the power of conveying the idea of distance and atmosphere. Objects are no longer seen upon one plane only, and then confused, but you look into the scene, and the eye is carried onward from the foreground to the middle distance, and thence to the far-off horizon. The air is not a void, suggestive of an exhausted receiver, but you survey objects through something like a medium. Light and shade are also more emphatically accentuated, and the gradations of each, as in a good etching, make some approach towards an indication of color. At any rate, a photograph ceases to be monotonous, and while you get a faithful transcript of the majestic or winning forms of nature, you also obtain subtle hints

of those charms in which she is arrayed by the magical influences of light and color. But in all probability the most admirable sun pictures of to-day will be discarded as crude and poor by the end of the present century; for of this branch of art and science, as of every other, may it not be said that men, the workers, are "Ever reaping something new"? That which they have done but earnest of the things that they shall do.

O. M. SPENCER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Melbourne, August 6, 1881.

NOTES.

Telegraph line in China.—Consul-General Denny, of Shanghai, writes to the Department of State, under date of September 27, 1881, that the line of telegraph now being constructed by the Chinese Government between Shanghai and Tientsin is rapidly being pushed forward.

It is completed to a point in the province of Shatung, distant from Tientsin about 500 miles, and from Shanghai to Chin-Kiang, distant about 150 miles; and last week the cable was laid across the Yang-tse, the point where the line crosses that great river. This leaves about 350 miles yet to be completed of this important enterprise, which is to be finished and in working order by the end of the year.

American celluloid collars and cuffs.—Consul-General Brewer, of Berlin, writes to the Department of State under the date of October 18, 1881, relative to a newspaper article on the danger of using American celluloid collars and cuffs:

I beg to report to the Department the following statement which appeared in No. 281 of "The Post" (a newspaper published in this city), respecting American celluloid collars and cuffs, a depot for the sale of which has recently been established here:

"*American patent linen.*—The American patent linen, which, it is claimed, can be cleaned with a sponge dipped in cold water, has recently been introduced into Germany and has been chemically analyzed in this city by order of the police authorities. The analysis shows that in the production of this linen (collars and cuffs) ingredients are used which are extremely dangerous to health; for instance, oxide of lead and camphor are used in such great quantities that under certain circumstances blood poisoning could easily be induced. It is also very inflammable, and on the slightest possible contact with flame burns explosively."

While the above assertions may be correct, there is also a probability that their object is to prevent the introduction of the articles, it being perhaps feared that the trade in linen collars and cuffs manufactured in this country would suffer thereby.

Prohibition of the importation of Italian grapes into Austria.—Consul-General Weaver, of Vienna, transmits the following:

In view of the action of the Austro-Hungarian Government last March relative to the prohibition of our swine products, the following translation of the recent decree against the importation of Italian grapes, &c., may be of special interest. The decree was published in this city on the 29th instant, and runs as follows:

"*Decree of the ministers of agriculture, of foreign affairs, of finances, and of commerce, dated September* 26, 1881, *relative to the prohibition from Italy of grapes, pomace, compost, manure, and old rails and posts.*

In consideration of the increase in the appearance of the *Phylloxera vastatrix* in Italy, and in consideration that Italy has not acceded to the convention of Berne, it is decreed in agreement with the Royal Government of Hungary:

I. Grapes of every description, including both table and wine grapes, pomace, compost, manure, old rails and posts may not, until further orders, be imported from Italy.

II. This ordinance goes into operation from the time it is received by the respective customs officers.

TAAFFE.
FALKENHAYN.
DUNAJEWSKY.
PERIO.

Fees and charges on whaling vessels.—Vice-Consul Newton, of St. Paul de Loanda, forwards the following communication, under date of September 16, 1881, relative to the fees and charges on whaling vessels:

I have the honor to inclose a translation of a dispatch received from his excellency the governor-general of this province, in reply to my request to reduce the fees and charges levied on whaling vessels coming to this port.

You will notice by the translation that his excellency has kindly granted my request, and that now the charges are so moderate that I should think it would not keep vessels from coming to a port where they will find greater facilities in arranging provisions or anything they may require than in any other port on the coast.

[Translation of Governor-General Dantes's dispatch, dated August 3, 1881.]

In answer to your dispatch dated the 14th July, his excellency the governor-general has ordered me to communicate the following:

1st. That whalers are allowed to come into port for the space of six days, or for a longer time when requested, free of all expenses with the exception of 400 reis or 40 cents a day while in port for a custom-house guard, and 1,500 reis, or $1.62 for the health visit. All the captain-of-the-port charges will be abolished for this class of vessels, except when a pilot is asked for, the expenses of which will be 1,500 reis, or 162 cents, for bringing the ship into port, and 1,500 reis, or 162 cents, for her pilotage out.

2d. That the said whalers can store their oil in the custom-house, paying 2 per cent. ad valorem on reshipment; keeping it in the custom-house for another six months it will pay 20 reis, or 2 cents for every 10 letras. Ship's gear, &c., stored in the custom-house are free from this last charge. You must take note that these advantages are only valid in the Loanda custom-house, not at those of Massamedes and Benguella, as they are not deposit custom-houses, and are not adapted to store large quantities of casks.

3d. Lastly, whalers can receive provisions, &c., from the ships that come usually every six months from America with their supplies, transhipping oil to them without paying any duties whatsoever.

In case you have any remarks to make on what his excellency the governor-general has ordered me to communicate to you, will you kindly do so, as his excellency is willing to do all in his power within the law to facilitate whalers coming into this port, and harmonizing the interests of these with the laws to which they are subject.

JOAS JOSÉ DA SILVA,
Acting Secretary.

The VICE-CONSUL OF THE UNITED STATES,
St. Paul de Loanda.

To American agricultural-implement manufacturers.—Consul Jackson, of Antigua, writes to the Department of State under date of September 29, 1881, relative to the necessity for the invention of a sugar-cane reaper, as follows:

I beg the Department to bring to the immediate notice of American inventors the opportunity presented them of constructing a machine driven by horse power for the purpose of reaping sugar-cane in the West Indies.

The present system of reaping is tedious, inefficient, and expensive, and can be compared to the reaping of grain with the sickle, now half a century gone. It is confined to the use of the "cane-bill," an instrument resembling a butcher's cleaver. One cane at a time is severed, topped, and deposited in its respective heap.

One of the conditions imposed upon the laborer is that he shall sever the cane to the ground. An act highly necessary to the proper development of the shoots expected for the following crop.

This condition is often abused, and in the necessitated haste of securing the crop the derelict laborer is often retained to the detriment of the crop.

If the canes could be severed by a machine evenly with, or slightly beneath, the surface of the ground, the advantage gained in this respect alone would be of signal importance and would command the attention of every well-meaning planter of the West Indies.

There are grave difficulties to be overcome in the invention of a desirable machine; one is the exceeding strength of the stool of canes to be severed, often amounting to a dozen largely developed subjects, some standing upright, others bending nearly to the ground, then again the unevenness of the surface, owing to eccentric modes of cultivation, not without method, and thickly strewn with fallen leaves and mulching.

I can safely say that a successful machine would be an epoch in the great sugar belt

of the West Indies, equal in importance to the introduction of the harvesting machines so important to the grain industry of the United States.

I am frequently importuned by planters, who state the dire necessity for greater improvement in machinery for cheaper manufacture of sugar, and who deplore the fact of the lukewarmness of the English inventors to their pressing needs, to make exertion to arouse the practical and ambitious American inventor to the grave importance of this "cry from Macedonia."

Inquiries from inventors relating to minor points necessary to a successful issue will receive my earliest attention.

Free building materials for Hayti.—Vice-Consul-General Terres, of Port-au-Prince, under date of September 22, transmits to the Department of State a copy of a law as published in Le Moniteur, the official journal of the Republic, on the 3d instant, together with a translation thereof.

The law in question has for object to create immediate relief for the victims of the recent fire at Jeremie, and to that effect in the 1st article of this law there is provided that an extraordinary credit of $30,000 be opened to the government to come to the assistance of the sufferers; article 2 provides that from its publication until September 30, 1882, there shall be allowed to enter the port of Jeremie free of all duties building materials such as lumber, bricks, paving bricks slates, tiles, sheet-iron, paints, nails, and iron ware; article 3 stipulates, that restitution be made to all tax-payers of that city of the tax of patents, tenantable or landed imports, due or to become due, until September 30, 1882, by all freeholders, merchants, traders, and tenants, victims of the fire; articles 4 and 5 provide for the execution of the above law.

The losses sustained in the last fire are very great, and the law passed in behalf of the sufferers meets with very general commendation.

[Translation.]

LAW.

SALOMON, *President of Hayti.*

Whereas, during the night of the 29th ultimo, the city of Jeremie was, in greater part, destroyed by fire;

Whereas it is the duty of the government to come to the aid of the population afflicted by this calamity, according to the resources of the pulic treasure,

By advice of the council of secretaries of state, has proposed, and the Corps Legislative has of urgence rendered the following law:

Article 1. An extraordinary credit of $30,000 is opened by the government to assist, as promptly as possible, the victims of the fire which has almost totally destroyed the city of Jeremie.

The distribution of this money will be effected by a commission, chosen by the executive power, under the high control of the senators and deputies of Jeremie.

Article 2. Will enter, free of all duties, in the port of Jeremie, from the publication of the present law until the 30th September, 1882, materials of construction, such as boards and other lumber for building purposes, bricks, paving bricks, slates, tiles, sheet-iron, paints, nails, and iron work.

Article 3. Surrender is made to all tax-payers of the city of Jeremie of the tax of patents, tenantable or landed imposts, due or to become due, until the 30th September, 1882, by all freeholders, merchants, traders, and tenants, victims of the disaster.

Article 4. An employé, appointed theby secretary of state of finance, will be charged to draw up, without delay, the list of names of persons to whom restitution, exemption, and assistance mentioned in articles 1 and 2 shall be made.

Article 5. The present law shall be printed and published at the diligence of the secretaries of state of the interior, and of finance, who are charged, each in that which pertains to him, with its execution.

Given at the National Senate Chamber, at Port-au-Prince, the 2d September, 1881, seventy-eighth year of the Independence.

The president of the Senate:

M. MONTASSE.

The secretaries:

J. P. LALFOUNTANT.

T. DUPUY.

Given at the Chamber of Representatives at Port-au-Prince, the 2d September, 1881, seventy-eighth year of the Independence.

The president of the Chamber:

FRANÇOIS MANIGAT.

The secretaries:

U. LÉGER,
D. THÉODORE.

In the name of the republic:

The president of Hayti orders that the law hereabove of the Corps Législative be clothed with the seal of the republic, printed, published, and executed.

Given at the National Palace of Port-au-Prince, the 3d September, 1881, seventy-eighth year of the Independence.

By the president:

SALOMON.

The secretary of state of the interior of agriculture.

F. D. LÉGITIME.

The provisional secretary of the department of finance, of commerce, &c.

B. ST. VICTOR.

Trade of Carthagena.—The consul of the United States of Colombia, Guatemala, and Venezula, at New Orleans, has kindly furnished the following interesting information concerning the trade of the port of Carthagena:

I beg respectfully to you to accept inclosed statement, which was expressly compiled for my own use, and it is reliable.

My correspondent says: According to our usual trade at this time of the year, I am convinced that the trade this year, in regard to United States, will show an increase of exports of 84 per cent. at least, and of 50 per cent. on imports. One steamer only, the Alene, going north took 5,000 packs, and as much as that is ready for the "Aloo." I will send you his letters.

I have written about your last book upon cottons delivered at Atlanta, in the "Monitor Republican," of Mexico, according to what I have read in the papers, and hope you will let me have it as a valuable contributor to my works between the American Union and the Spanish-speaking countries.

Statement showing the imports and exports of the port of Carthagena, United States of Colombia, for the year ending September 30, 1881.

IMPORTS.

Whence imported.	Number of packages.	Weight in kilos.	Value.
United States	49,105	2,293,804	$286,650
England	30,096	1,141,114	505,816
Germany	66,640	471,665	77,899
France	7,724	252,436	107,132
Belgium	113,274	217,293	4,705
Italy	4,605	116,616	7,222
Spain	548	54,349	5,391
Danemark	25	1,483	125
Spanish Main	1,904	54,963	33,261
Venezuela	2	219	240
Costa-Rica	581	10,238	835
Aspinwall (Colombia)	769	39,046	51,887
Total	275,873	4,653,226	1,081,163

EXPORTS.

Whence exported.	Number of packages.	Weight in kilos.	Value.
United States	89,720	2,693,187	$345,163
England	24,263	896,066	139,847
Germany	55,119	1,926,622	280,642
France	3,465	149,799	39,122
Italy	19,466	399,265	7,710
Central America	452	12,066	1,500
Spanish Main	10,572	2,953,647	261,619
Aspinwall (Colombia)	2,120	49,544	8,925
Total	205,186	9,080,196	1,084,828

By a comparison with the commerce of the previous year, ended September 30, 1880, the correspondent at Carthagena of the Colombian consul shows that there is in the trade with the United States an increase of about 25 per cent. on the imports and 42 per cent. on the exports. England is yet the larger importer, and the United States the larger exporter.

E. MARTINEZ.

NEW ORLEANS, *November* 9, 1881.

LOSS OF AN AMERICAN SCHOONER.

The United States consul at Falmouth, under date of October 12, furnishes the following information:

The brigantine Carl Rosenius, of Bergen, N. Julius Seliken master, from Aux Cayes, for orders, arrived here yesterday, having on board Ephraim Wilson, a colored seaman, the sole survivor of the crew of the schooner Annie Palmer or Annie M. Palmer, of Boston.

From Wilson's statement it appears that this vessel left Wilmington on the 2d of September with a cargo of timber for Hayti, the crew consisting of the master, mate, cook, and three seamen. On the 7th of the same month, at 11 p. m., they suddenly encountered a hurricane which continued until 4 a. m. of the following day. The crew cut away the mainmast, let go the port anchors to keep the vessel to the windward, and did everything in their power to save the vessel, but all such efforts failed, for at 1 a. m she capsized.

All of the crew were at the time on the deck cargo. Wilson reports that an old seaman (an Irishman) was first washed off, then a young man, next the captain, and lastly the mate and cook, clinging to each other. Wilson himself laid hold of a piece of rope attached to the deck load, by means of which he succeeded in lashing himself to the floating mainmast. In this dreadful position he remained, without food and very barely clad, until the 12th, when, being in latitude 28 north and longitude 72.12 west, he was descried and soon afterwards rescued by the Carl Rosenius, in a condition of exhaustion. Wilson says he is ignorant of the name of the master, as also of the rest of the crew, excepting the mate, who was called Scott, but he believed the captain belonged to Boston. He speaks highly of the attention paid to him by the master, officers, and crew of the Carl Rosenius.

I have placed the poor man at the Sailors' Home for the present, and procured for him a supply of clothing, which he much needed.

There being no opportunity of sending him from this port direct to the United States, I purpose forwarding him to Liverpool to the care of the consul there.

American products in Holland.—Consul Eckstein reports to the department that the character *f.* in his interesting report under this head, and published in No. 9, pages 147 and 148, was intended to signify *florins* instead of *francs*, in his statement of prices of bacon, lard, and oleomargarine. That portion of his report which details such prices is herewith reprinted.

BACON AND LARD.

In my annual report for 1880 I furnished information concerning operations in bacon and lard up to June 30 of that year. The trade of the second half of the year, or from July 1 to December 31, commenced under very favorable auspices. Short middles, summer-cured, which sold at 45 florins per 100 kilograms in the beginning of July, soon advanced to 46¼ florins. A still more decided rise occurred in the price of short middles, winter-cured, which about this time was eagerly bought up, and about the middle of August brought as much as 51 florins per 100 kilograms.

At the opening of the new packing season, in November, there was a fair demand for new bacon. Prices opened at 48¼ florins per 100 kilograms for short middles, but declined to 46¼ florins in December, on account of large supplies.

Backs.—This "cut" being offered by American packers in the beginning of the summer season at proportionally lower prices than short middles, a trade in them at once sprung up, and as the quality of the first imports proved very good, a large and remunerative business in this "cut" has become established here. Prices of fat backs advanced from July to the middle of September at about the following rate: "Backs," averaging 26 pounds, from, 48, 49, to 55¼ florins per 100 kilograms; averaging 30 pounds, from 49 to 56 florins per 100 kilograms; averaging 35 pounds, from 52 to 58 florins per 100 kilograms.

Contracts for large quantities made in October for winter-cured December shipments

were closed at about the following rates: "Backs," averaging 28 to 30 pounds, from 49 to 53 florins per 100 kilograms; averaging 35 pounds, from 52 to 54 florins per 100 kilograms; averaging 40 pounds, from 53 to 55 florins per 100 kilograms.

In respect to the trade in these articles, I had occasion to speak in my last report of certain complaints from parties here interested in the business against packers and exporters in the United States; it is therefore with peculiar satisfaction that I state that during the period covered by this report hardly any irregularities or unfairness causing disappointment or loss to importers have occurred. The trade has generally been agreeable and satisfactory, and Boston packers are said to have secured in this market an especially high reputation on account of delivering usually a very nice product, and having fulfilled all engagements so promptly.

The quality of all sorts of bacon is said to have been good, and well preserved. Nor has the trade been, or is, in anywise influenced or affected by any reports concerning excessive hog disease in the United States. I regret to have been unable to procure any information as to the quantity or value of bacon, ham, &c., imported into this port or country from the United States during the six months ending December 31, 1880. I am, however, prepared to state that the imports for that period of time were considerably in excess of those for the corresponding period of 1879, and that the imports have been on the increase for several years last past, and are increasing year by year.

Lard.—The leading brand, "Wilcox's," was quoted at 23½ florins per 50 kilograms in July, at which time the supply in this market was very limited, and as about at that time the price for the article advanced in "America," it soon rose here from 24 florins in latter part of July to 26½ florins, closing at 27 florins at the end of the year.

OLEOMARGARINE.

This article commenced being imported into this country from the United States in large quantities about the year 1874. The manufacture of artificial butter or oleomargarine began to be engaged in about that time, and factories sprang up in different parts of the country, so that at the beginning of 1878 there were about twenty of them. The business proving remarkably profitable to nearly all in any way interested in it, caused an increase in the establishment of new factories to such an extent that in 1880 there were, I am credibly informed, fully one hundred of them.

The manufacture of artificial butter—butterine—was up to 1880 carried on here with almost unvarying success, pecuniarily speaking, the demand for the article hardly ever flagging, England being uniformly the principal customer. During the year 1880 the imports of oleomargarine into this country from the United States, direct and indirect, are said to have been much larger than during any previous year, but to obtain the actual, correct figures representing the quantity imported I found impossible. Approximate estimates furnished me by parties interested in the trade, and well conversant therewith, would show it to have been from about 75,000 tierces, or about 11,000 tons' weight, all the way to 120,000 tierces, or about 15,000 tons' weight. The prices on the case, of the brand Toby & Booth, varied during the year, per 100 kilograms, as shown in the following statement:

	Florins.
January	104 to 110
February	97 to 69
March	65 to 66
April	69 to 76
May	83 to 78
June	70 to 71
July	77 to 88
August	90 to 98
September	102 to 108
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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

CONSULAR DISTRICTS.

No. 14.—December, 1881.

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

DECEMBER, 1881.

THE CONSUMPTION OF AMERICAN BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS IN EUROPE.

REPORT BY CONSUL BYERS, OF ZURICH.

Before the year 1860 the United States did not export, on an average, more than 4,000,000 cwts. of wheat yearly. Between that date and 1865 the average amount was nearly 15,000,000 cwts., and during the years 1871 to 1875 it ran up to 24,000,000. Then commenced an increase of grain export pronounced by good authority as being absolutely without parallel in the history of commerce.

Our wheat exports reached, in 1876, 29,500,000 cwts.; in 1877, 21,500,000 cwts.; in 1878, 38,500,000 cwts.; in 1879, 65,500,000 cwts.; in 1880, 83,000,000 cwts. During these years, 1876 to 1880, our flour exports had increased from less than 7,000,000 cwts. to 10,500,000 cwts., and the corn we sold went from 24,500,000 to 49,000,000 cwts. Very bad harvests at home and very fair harvests abroad checked the tremendous exports in 1881, but the healthy steadiness with which they have increased, with few exceptions, for the last fifteen years, is a guarantee that the check is temporary only, and that, with favored harvests and increased acreage, our grain exports will become almost fabulous. Better grain lands do not exist in the world, and our people, aided by the millions of industrious farmers coming from Europe, are each year adding vast regions to the hand of the reaper. Our cheap lands and machine cultivation have revolutionized farming over the entire world, and this revolution is a permanent one, waiting only on cheaper methods of transportation to make it still more radical. When our barge systems are completed, and our water-courses made to serve us, and we own lines of great freight-steamers to every foreign sea-port, famine and hunger will be things only of fable and history. Our grain exports do not go so exclusively to England as in former years; there the increase

since the year 1860, in wheat alone, has been 58,000,000 bushels. Almost no wheat was bought from us by Belgium in that year, but in the year 1879 9,000,000 bushels were taken. France commenced in that year (1860) with but 28,000 bushels of American wheat. Nineteen years later she bought of us about 42,000,000 bushels, and the increase in flour and corn sent to that country in those years is yet more marked. With all this, there remain good reasons for supposing that we are only at the beginning of grain-exporting to continental States. Cheap transportation can easily make it possible for us to supply other continental States with the millions of grain they are now buying from abroad; for the increases of their purchases from us have not by any means reached the amount we can yet make them. If wheat bears the cost of transportation even from Australia, Egypt, and Chili, to Europe, and statistics show that it does, there certainly can be no further question as to our furnishing the article at as low a price in any continental harbor.

London now controls the wheat market of Europe; but, on the other hand, her own market is controlled by the wheat-fields of the United States. Of Great Britain's imported wheat last year, 5 per cent. came from Russia, 6 per cent. from India, 8 per cent. from Australia, 7 per cent. from British America, 3 per cent. from Egypt, 3 per cent. from Chili, 3 per cent. from Germany, and 65 per cent. from the United States. There is no good reason why other wheat-buying states should not be supplied from the United States in the same proportion as Great Britain, and there are visible signs that this will soon be effected.

Russia sold 9,000,000 centners of wheat to Great Britain only three years ago; now she sells but a little over 2,500,000.

Germany, which furnished Britain with 5,000,000 centners in 1878, furnished her but 1,750,000 in 1880.

There are not fewer than ten European countries which must buy a part of the grain they consume, and nearly as many are compelled to buy a part of their meat. France imported in 1878 not less than 20,000,000 centners of grain, not a fourth of it coming from the United States, though we increased the amount to about 44,000,000 in 1879.

Little Switzerland imports about 7,000,000 centners of grain yearly, but to the present time almost wholly from Eastern European states, while 117,000,000 francs worth of wheat and corn are bought yearly by Italy, a small proportion only coming from the United States. So, too, is it with Sweden, Portugal, the Netherlands, and Greece, all large buyers of grain and of meat, but not yet buying extensively of the United States. Supposing that Europe continues to produce the same quantities of bread and meat as now, there is still left the numerous markets referred to, to be supplied, and that with amounts which, in their totals, would double the exports we now have. There is no likelihood, however, of production continuing so largely in Europe when it is becoming unprofitable. Cheap labor is counterbalanced by dear land, and the question of American supply has become almost wholly a question of freights.

If with but 32,000,000 acres of land in wheat we can now support 50,000,000 of our own people, and send about 100,000,000 of spare bushels abroad, what will we have for export when all territories of American wheat-land shall stand in golden grain?

Our corn-fields have produced surplus crops for Europe that are scarcely less astounding than the shipments of wheat. From 3,000,000 bushels sent abroad in 1860, the exports had risen to more than 85,000,000 bushels in 1879; and this is supplemented by something like

11,000,000 busels of rye, barley, and oats furnished to Europe in that year.

The grand complement of these grain exports are the meat, butter, and cheese we sell abroad. These necessaries of life we export mostly direct to England, but the consumption on the continent is much greater than is usually supposed. We sent directly to English ports in 1879, exclusive of our shiploads of live cattle, &c., not less than 516,000,000 pounds of ham and bacon, 25,000,000 pounds of butter, and 136,000,000 pounds of cheese. Another hundred million pounds of these same articles were sent to other states, mostly in Europe.

It is not so much the enormous amounts of these articles exported that is worthy of attention as it is the steadiness of the increase recently from year to year, showing that this stupendous export of breadstuffs and meats is not based on fictitious circumstances that may speedily change. The price of the native products of the land do not change materially in Europe. The land itself cannot become much cheaper or produce more, nor can farm laborers be expected for less wages than they at present receive. In America land may become dearer, it is true, but in proportion that it becomes dearer will immigration increase its products, while new methods of farming, of slaughtering, packing, preserving, and transporting will double and treble the capacity of our country for supplying the world cheaply with life's necessities.

S. H. M. BYERS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Zurich, October 12, 1881.

THE ENLARGEMENT OF AMERICAN TRADE IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL POTTER, OF CREFELD.

With a view of complying, in a practical way, with the standing instructions of the Department of State to consular officers, to make whatever efforts were possible toward "the introduction of American trade into, and the enlargement thereof, in their several districts," in the month of October of last year I issued, with the sanction and encouragement of the Department, a circular, which was addressed to many of the prominent manufacturers and export merchants of the United States, and in which it was stated that—

> Arrangements have been made to exhibit, in suitable apartments connected with this consulate, such sample articles as American export merchants, manufacturers, inventors, artists, and producers may desire to bring to the notice and favorable consideration of commercial communities, and the people generally, on the continent of Europe.

In the same circular it was further stated that—

> A reading-room will also be provided, where all American export, commercial, trade, and scientific journals, and all such circulars, cards, and printed matter as explain the articles on exhibition will be conveniently arranged for use of merchants and others who may desire information concerning these and other American productions.

These arrangements were fully perfected, and the efforts of this consulate, with reference to its usefulness in this particular work, were extended to its agency in Düsseldorf.

In answer to the suggestions contained in the circular, many articles not before presented to the people of this part of Germany were for-

warded to this consulate, and such steps as were regarded most efficient were at once taken to place them before the public. My own time, and the time of the vice and deputy consul and clerk, and the assistant clerk, was wholly devoted to this interesting work when we were not officially engaged. Many thousands of publications regarding American manufactures and useful inventions were distributed where they "would do the most good"; translations requiring time and patience were made, and hundreds of letters written.

The result of the experiment has been most satisfactory so far as the commercial and industrial interests of the United States are concerned. Through the advantages offered by this consulate, agencies for sale of such manufactures and products of the United States as are adapted to the wants of the people of Germany have already been established in the principal centers of trade in Rhenish Prussia and Westphalia, and the vice and deputy consul and *late* clerk of this consulate, an intelligent, energetic, highly honorable, and prominent citizen of Crefeld, is now actively engaged in behalf of American manufacturers in establishing agencies for the same purpose in other parts of the German Empire.

It cannot be doubted that the experiment above referred to has demonstrated very clearly the degree of assistance which the consular service can render in "extending our commerce and trade." It is equally clear that the government should adopt an equitable and proper system of encouragement and aid, which will help consular officers in the performance of such useful work.

For particulars regarding the work which Mr. Schneider is now doing and his manner of doing it, I respectfully refer to his interesting report, which is as follows:

CREFELD, *October* 21, 1881.

Mr. J. F. POTTER,
United States Consul, Crefeld:

MY DEAR SIR: In compliance with your request of the 17th instant, to give you a report embracing my experience and observations regarding the introduction of American goods into Germany through the instrumentalities of your consulate, as offered in a circular issued by you in October last, a year ago, I beg to report as follows:

While I was actively engaged in your consulate, and had charge of the department for the introduction for manufactures and products of the United States into Germany, I submitted to the public a great many articles of American origin, not before known in this part of the empire, and I have communicated the information gathered to you and to the parties in the United States who availed themselves of the services offered by your office.

When your enterprise in the interests of American trade and commerce had been in operation six or seven months, it was learned that Congress had changed your consulate into a salaried office, and had prohibited you from "transacting any business" for any person "directly or indirectly," except that of a strictly official character, and that your much-needed allowance for clerk hire, for the increasing business of your office, had been wholly cut off, I resigned at your suggestion my position as clerk in the consulate, in order to continue the effort already successfully begun, for making a market among the German people for American goods, and then myself establish a commission or representative house for that purpose.

With your personal aid and disinterested assistance, and aided also by my experience in the service of the consulate, I have secured important representative connections among American manufacturers and producers, and have already successfully introduced among my countrymen many articles of American manufacture, which have met with popular favor. I am now constantly engaged in perfecting arrangements for placing such goods as are practically adapted to the wants of our people and country where they will be easily accessible throughout Germany by means of agencies to be established in the principal centers of trade and commerce.

Such agencies I have already established in the larger cities of Rhenish Prussia and Westphalia, and these agents have already commenced a promising business, making the outlook of the enterprise initiated by you appear very encouraging, so far as the interests of American merchants are concerned.

There are many kinds of goods made in the United States which are adapted to our

wants, and which are better and more substantial and practical than those of a similar character made in my own country, but which cannot, I regret, as yet be introduced to the German public, on account of their high cost when compared with the price at which our inferior home-made articles of the same description can be sold. There are other articles of American production, of great bulk, and comparatively small value, which we would like, but cannot have, for the reason that the high freights and the new duties on almost all kinds of goods imported into Germany place them beyond the means of the mass of our people, who are obliged to economize in all departments of life.

Americans, as a rule, are far more practical in their inventions and their mechanisms than the Germans, and therefore a great many articles, of small and high value, are made in the United States, which, if properly introduced here, would meet with an extensive sale, especially such articles as are not yet known to our German tariff laws. The articles I refer to are such as are adapted to universal use, and labor-saving in character, besides being superior in quality and durability. It is such goods that I am now, in behalf of American producers and manufacturers, bringing to the attention of the people of Germany.

The difficulties we have to contend with in this work are manifold, but the principal one is to convince Germans of the truth of the representations made to them concerning foreign-made articles. The course I have adopted is to first invite intelligent trials of all goods and machinery offered, before a purchase is suggested. Under the conservative views held by the Germans regarding new things and new methods, I find this just system working well. The result is that the suspicion and prejudices against new inventions of American origin which have heretofore existed are gradually disappearing. But it yet requires much labor, patience, perseverance, time, and money to overcome these existing difficulties.

By using the elements referred to, and through the influence of wide spread connections in Germany, I have succeeded very well, and some of the articles which are being handled by agents already appointed are meeting with gratifying favor, and an extensive sale, sooner or later, is quite certain to follow.

I remain, my dear sir, very respectfully, yours,

R. SCHNEIDER.

A NEW AMERICAN STORE.

I take pleasure, also, in stating that a small store in this city, where American useful household articles have been sold in a limited way since 1876, has, within the past year, grown rapidly into very creditable proportions, and the proprietor, Mr. Edmund Taschner, a progressive and very active citizen of Crefeld, has just completed and occupied a new store, devoted to the sale of articles of American manufacture, which is among the most modern, beautiful, and spacious in Rhenish Prussia. I most cheerfully commend Mr. Taschner to the confidence of American exporters of useful household articles.

I cannot give a better description of what he is doing with American goods, and his manner of operations, than that given by himself in his report, which will be interesting and useful to exporters in the United States, and to which I respectfully refer, as follows:

CREFELD, *October* 18, 1881.

Mr. J. F. POTTER,
United States Consul, Crefeld:

DEAR SIR: In compliance with your request, I give you herewith a short sketch of my experience as a dealer in American goods in this city.

The first articles I purchased were "New York Mills shirting," "Wamsutta cottons," "Pepp jeans," rubber over-shoes, felt skirts, bed-chamber sets (of Edw. W. Banter & Co.), "Welcome carpet-sweepers," "Relief washing-machine" (folding bench), A patent adjustable chair (Pittsburg Adjustable Chair Company).

My intention was to take orders, but I found the retail dealers in this part of the country so opposed to foreign, especially American goods, and so prepossessed in favor of the home-made articles, that I did not succeed in carrying out my idea. Quite different I found it with private people, and this experience brought me to the conclusion to open a retail store myself on a system somewhat different from that tried by others who were not succeeding very well.

I will briefly give an account of the disposition I made of the goods above named, and the impression made upon the Germans regarding American manufactures, beginning with 1876.

The shirtings and jeans I sold with a good profit up to 1879, when an advance in the duty, under the German tariff, ruined this trade entirely. The goods are superior to all the cotton goods in this market, but our domestic goods in this line, such as are made in Alsace, can be sold in similar grades 25 per cent. cheaper. The import expenses on American goods amount to about this difference. Notwithstanding this fact, I have still a few customers who pay with pleasure the greater cost for American shirting, and would pay still a higher price for the article rather than use the German manufacture.

In rubber goods I could not do anything.

The furniture was pronounced very handsome and very cheap, but I could not obtain any orders for similar goods.

In rocking-chairs and children's chariot-chairs I am doing a nice business, but would like to have more variety offered by American manufacturers.

The felt skirts, bought from a manufacturing firm in Broadway, N. Y., were sold very promptly, even to dealers, the shapes being tasteful and new, and the material excellent. But, in answering my second orders, the same firm served me in such a manner that I preferred not to have the article any more.

The "Welcome carpet-sweeper" has become a regular and staple article in my business, but the manufacturer has brought me into several difficulties by altering the operations of the machinery, but not always improving it.

I buy many of the American goods from an importing house in Hamburg, and I directed their attention to this machine, since which time they have done a large business with it. At present there are several different machines of this description in the market, but in my judgment the "Welcome" is much the best, in the old style, with iron wheels and changeable journals.

The "Relief washing-machine," which is a first-rate machine, has been sold very well and gives great satisfaction to the buyers. My import house in Hamburg had offered to me, in the mean time, "Adams's Little Complete washer." This machine, being much cheaper and doing nearly the same work as the "Relief," has been pushed by me, and I sold more than 500 of them in the past two years to private families in this city. I have now ordered again the "Relief," but am selling also "Calkin's Novelty and Champion washer," both very good machines. There may be a great many more just as good American washing-machines, but those named give general satisfaction in this market.

I will mention that I have had great trouble in introducing these American machines. At first I gave them on trial, and then I sent around and gave regular lessons as to the manner of using them. The "Complete" and the "Champion washer" are now initiated here and sold by most of the dealers in household goods.

"Bailey's wringing-machine." I sold these machines for a time exclusively, but there is no regular agent in Europe for the company; at least I do not know of one; and, being offered other machines at a cheaper price, and obtainable with less trouble than the "Bailey's" had given me, I had to quit them, and now deal in the following machines: "Empire," "Keystone," and "Colly;" but I have always to keep on hand a few "Bailey's" with folding-bench, on account of this very convenient arrangement. Nearly all American wringers are imitated in Germany, but with poor success, and none of the imitations can compete with the original.

The "Adjustable chair" is made in Germany, and Mr. Eckermann claims a patent for it, and is doing, as I learn, a thriving business with it. I have seen the Eckermanns' chair, and I declare it to be a true copy of the American invention.

"Keep's patent shirts" I sold well for a while, but what I have stated about shirtings and jeans is also applicable to this article.

Besides the foregoing, I have sold, or tried to sell, a great many other goods of American origin, and will give you short notes about them.

Hatchets, axes, hay-forks, garden tools, saws, &c., sell very slowly. The superiority of these tools is readily acknowledged, but the prices range too high. The same may be said of nearly all kinds of American tools. The German manufacturers of this class of goods are all closely copying American shapes and patterns. Among "American lawn-mowers" I have sold the "Excelsior," "Pennsylvania," "Buckeye," and the "Philadelphia." The latter is very well known in this country and enjoys the best reputation. A similar machine is manufactured here by several manufacturers somewhat cheaper, and the imitation is very well advertised, and is placed with many advantages into the hands of dealers. So it seems that by and by the American machines will be crowded out of the market here by cheap imitations.

"Peck's American lawn-sprinkler," which is the handsomest and most useful sprinkler in Germany, is imitated here as well as in England, but the original will keep the lead in finish and price, so far as I can judge.

The "Victor knife-sharpener" is one of the striking little articles which sell at sight, and there is daily call for them. I wish I had more of these little useful Yankee notions to offer to our German people.

Stamped and enameled iron cooking-utensils, of the Lalance and Grosjean Manu-

facturing Company of New York, I bought from an agent in Hanover. They are the best enameled goods I have ever met with. I was able to procure only a small quantity, as the Hanover man had a very small stock, and had ceased to import any more. The goods suited my customers in this part of Germany so well that in a short time I sold all I had, and could not fill the orders received. I tried my best to get a new stock, but without success. The company in New York has not even cared to answer my letters. The demand for these goods by those who have used them still exists, and I must leave it to a later time to find an article which will replace them, or, perhaps, it may please the New York concern to change their *modus operandi*. If they do not, their goods will surely be imitated in this country. I have a regular trade in other American articles, such as egg-beaters, nutmeg-graters, fruit-presses, sausage-stuffers, mouse-traps, apple parers and slicers, cherry-stoners, Pott's sad irons, clothes-racks, sardine-knives, ice-cream freezers, plaiting and ruffling machines, bird-cages, alarm-clocks, savings-banks, &c., mostly household goods.

Amongst the articles I have tried to sell with poor success were coffee and spice mills. The American machines I found could not compete with the French manufacture in price. A very nice little article is the "Christmas-tree holder," made by the American Machine Company, and it sells rapidly in its season. The "Star door-spring" is also an excellent article. Very good, and better than other manufactures, is the "American W. C. paper," which is coming into general use in Germany.

American parlor stoves, self-feeders, with base burning arrangement, are in increasing demand, and a great many styles are offered by several of the German importing houses. I had the "Westminster," "Ulster," "Crown Jewel," but, the prices being too high, I have tried the direct importation of a few styles, viz, the "Radiant Flame stove" and the "Garland." The manufacturers of the latter offered fair and liberal inducements, and I shall sell their stoves this season. I have received a good many of these stoves, and my experience with them, so far, gives me great satisfaction. I am selling stoves now daily, and my stock diminishes very rapidly. The import expenses, such as freight, duty, &c., are very heavy, being more than 50 per cent. on the cost price in America, and if the goods were not strikingly superior to the various cheaper imitations which are made here and elsewhere, their sale would be impossible in Germany.

The demand for American articles for household use, or for any other purpose in this country, depends largely upon their superior quality being fully maintained.

It is advisable for the American stove manufacturers to put down their prices as low as possible for exportation, and to find means of cheapening transportation, if possible.

I am, dear sir, yours, most truly,

EDM. TASCHN,
No. 46 Hockstrasse, Crefeld.

There has recently been organized in this part of Germany a combination of manufacturers for the purpose of checking the importation of sewing-machines and other labor-saving articles from the United States. If the superior quality of American mechanism, which is readily acknowledged here, be steadily maintained, such combinations will have little influence in checking the demand for goods of this description. There are reasons for believing that the demand for such American productions as are not prohibited by the operations of the German tariff will be larger during the coming year—pork, hams, and bacon excepted—than has ever before been known.

J. F. POTTER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Crefeld, October 28, 1881.

THE FUTURE OF SILK CULTURE IN THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

In my dispatch No. 140, dated September 1, 1880, I referred to the fact that new machinery for reeling silk had been invented, which in my opinion was destined to be of great importance, and to make this in-

dustry extremely valuable and profitable in our country. I beg now to submit some additional observations upon this subject, and, for the purpose of being definite, to entitle them—

THE FUTURE OF SILK CULTURE IN THE UNITED STATES.

Silk-reeling is at present accomplished by the use of appliances which differ only in detail from those in use many centuries ago, and which can scarcely be called machines, being rather of the nature of apparatus depending entirely upon the skill and knowledge of the operative for the results produced. In fact, even the most perfect of French and Italian reels bear about the same relation to automatic machinery that an old-fashioned spinning-wheel does to our modern spinning-machines.

Since the date of my previous dispatch upon this subject, the new reeling-machine of Mr. E. W. Serrell, jr., of New York (who still continues in Lyons), has been undergoing improvement and development, and it is with the hope of facilitating the introduction and culture of silk, and of enabling our people to adopt the best means to that end, and to avoid errors which have been disastrous in the past and are likely to be extremely expensive in the near future that I now communicate with the Department, which is equally interested in securing new sources of industry and wealth for our people at home as for the promotion and extension of their commerce abroad.

It will be recollected that from about 1834 to 1839 there raged a great speculation in mulberry trees of a certain species (*Morus multicanlis*) destined for feeding silk-worms. This speculation led to a total loss of all the time and money devoted to it, partly because of its wild and utterly unsound character and partly because the little silk which was actually produced could not be reeled to advantage. As a result, silk culture fell into utter disrepute and for nearly a generation was scarcely thought of as a practical thing in the United States. Time, however, showed clearly where the great obstacle lay, and although many may have imagined that other difficulties led to its abandonment in 1839–'40, those who have studied the matter are unanimously of the opinion that the want of reeling machinery has alone prevented the success of sericulture in those parts of the Union which are suitable for it. Believing this obstacle to be removed, it remains to set forth in a brief manner some of the points upon which, it appears to me, the successful introduction of silk-raising will depend.

For the success of silk culture in our country two things are now requisite—the acquisition on the part of those about to engage in it of sound knowledge of its processes and requirements, and proper organization.

The details of the work of silk culture are of such a nature that they may be readily understood, and I apprehend that there will be little difficulty found by those who engage in it in mastering them, after some little experience. The point at which it seems to me that there is the most danger is at the very beginning.

In order to avoid delays and losses, the person who begins silk culture should have a pretty clear idea of the scale of operations which are likely to be most profitable, of the trees, or rather shrubs, which must be obtained, of the apparatus and fixtures necessary, and of the results which may be reasonably expected from the labor and expense required. All of these items will be found to vary in different parts of the country, and I fear that general rules, broad deductions, and such information as

would apply under all circumstances and in all places would be extremely difficult to formulate, and too vague for practical use at any given point.

In fact, as far as information which may be considered perfectly general is concerned, I have, for the time being, only one point to put forward in addition to what has already been published in the United States, which is to repeat and show as emphatically as possible that the use of the reels at present employed for the filature of silk is entirely impracticable in our country; and that the raiser must sell his cocoons.

This has been so often said and so clearly shown that I should consider it unnecessary to repeat it had not my attention been called to the fact that the success of several people and associations in the United States in raising cocoons has again made it a temptation to endeavor to reel silk, and during the past year I have received applications from people in different states for information as to the kind of silk reel employed here which would be most suitable for use by them.

I am aware, also, that estimates have been made and published by some eminent authorities tending to show that this work could be done on a paying basis in some places in America. So far as I have seen them, however, these estimates are fatally defective in that they do not allow for differences in quality of silk reeled by competent or incompetent people, and under circumstances favorable or otherwise, but seem to assume that any silk reeled in our country would be a first rate article, and paid for accordingly.

While this might be true in isolated cases, it could not be true in general, as with present appliances the art of reeling *good* silk is only to be acquired and retained by years of apprenticeship and constant practice joined to a natural talent for the work. So true is this, that even in districts where the work has been largely carried on for many generations, quite a large proportion of women who try for years find it impossible to become good reelers.

Now, there is a considerable difference in price between well reeled and poorly reeled silk—a difference so great that silk not well reeled in every way is not worth as much as the cocoons from which it is derived. It is therefore quite a hopeless task to reel silk unless the reeler is skilled. Even if it could be done to advantage, which I do not think it could, there exists in America no means of training reelers. In Europe they are taught by degrees in the filatures, working first at the easier stages of the operations and afterward being helped forward under the eyes and guidance of experienced operatives.

Another grave defect in the estimates alluded to is that all the profit is assumed to be paid to the reeler. This can evidently only be the case when each reeler runs her own reel, owns and cares for her own cocoons, sells her own silk, and furnishes her own capital. Now, even supposing that persons so fortunately placed as to be able to fulfill all these conditions should wish to engage in silk-reeling, which is in the highest degree improbable, there exists an almost insuperable obstacle to the production of good silk except by an establishment large enough to use the cocoons of many producers.

Nearly every silk crop as raised by the individual growers contains three or four grades of cocoons, and to produce good and uniform silk these must be separated and each sort reeled by itself, producing several grades of silk.

Without going into detail, it is enough to say that this is not practical for those who attempt to reel their own cocoons, and that for this reason, and many others, hand-reels and single basins have been nearly abandoned even in Italy; the women finding so much difficulty that

they prefer to sell their cocoons and work in large establishments where the work is done to more advantage.

It is evident therefore, that, from the estimates made, there should be a considerable deduction for poor workmanship, and another for use of capital, organization, selling expenses, superintendence, insurance, repairs, deterioration, &c. In fact, I do not see in what way the reeling of silk in the United States, by the ordinary method, could be made to bear a much higher charge for labor than that borne by European filatures, which barely pay with labor at one franc per diem of thirteen hours.

To be able, then, to reel silk by the ordinary reels, it would, first, be necessary to find a sufficiency of highly skilled operatives willing to labor in a factory thirteen hours per day for twenty cents each. I sincerely believe and hope that this can never be done. I have enlarged somewhat upon this difficulty for the purpose of showing that the growers, or at any rate individual growers of cocoons, should not attempt to do the reeling, but by no means with an idea of discouraging the raising of silk-worms, which is and should be an entirely separate matter. To use a rough comparison, I should esteem it as wasteful, even if possible, for each grower to attempt to reel his own cocoons as for each farmer to grind his own wheat upon his farm and endeavor to sell the flour.

It is, therefore, clear that the object of the sericulturist should be to raise and market as good a crop of cocoons as possible to the best advantage, and with the least possible expense and risk.

After what has been said, it may be very properly asked, if, seeing that the hopes which have been entertained of reeling by the usual method have proved fallacious, and as no radically new system of raising silk-worms is under consideration, it is not very possible that all hopes of profit from rearing the worm may prove fallacious also.

In fact, not only has the question been asked, but an argument of great apparent strength and much plausibility has been formulated and extensively circulated, tending to show that the difficulty of cheap labor, which it has been shown stood in the way of reeling without improved machinery, will make the raising of cocoons also a hopelessly unprofitable task.

Briefly summarized, this argument may be stated as follows:

First. To raise silk-worms to advantage much time and attention are required.

Second. Time and attention are more costly in the United States than in other countries.

Third. Consequently cocoons can be more cheaply raised in other countries than in the United States.

Fourth. The United States possess no special advantages as a market for cocoons, and therefore they must be sold as cheaply as elsewhere, and, the labor costing more, there is less profit.

Fifth. The profits made by raisers in Europe are not very great, and as they would be less in the United States it is not worth while to try to raise cocoons in that country.

It must be acknowledged that upon the surface this all appears to be very sound and almost unanswerable, but I hope to be able to show that there is in reality not the slightest real foundation for the conclusion to which this argument points.

Taking the points cited in order, I would say as regards the first and second, that although labor and time are required to raise cocoons I am convinced that the labor and time of the kind necessary will not be found more expensive in our country than in Europe for the following

reasons: The work is a home industry. It can be carried on without severe manual labor except for a few days, at the end of the season, when large crops are raised.

Now, nothing is better known than that there exist in many of our States an enormous number of wives and daughters of country people of a class entirely different from any to be found elsewhere except, perhaps, to a limited extent, in England. I refer to the "well-to-do," but not wealthy agricultural and manufacturing classes in small villages.

One or two generations ago the farmers' and mechanics' wives and daughters found plenty of work in spinning, weaving, dyeing, cutting and making the linen and clothes of the family. This has entirely ceased as a domestic industry with the exception of the "sewing" of the women's clothes and men's underwear. As a consequence the women of the family are condemned to idleness, or to the drudgery of the whole household work.

Upon a proper occasion I think that much might be said of the evils and dangers which are likely within a short time to arise from the fact that perhaps a large majority of American women find themselves, because of the present organization of society and industry, almost unable to contribute to the family income except by going away from home, or in doing the most menial and severe labor as household workers from one end to the other of the year. I shall at present, however, only point out that in hundreds of thousands of homes in the country an opportunity of gaining a very moderate sum in addition to the present income by the expenditure of some weeks of care and light work would be hailed as a Godsend, and that, too, in families where the feeling of self-respect and the desire to keep the family together are far too strong to permit the women to go away from home in any way to earn money.

Let any one who doubts this consider the dairy work and similar industries, and try to calculate how much per diem the women thus occupied at home gain in money. It may be said with entire accuracy that as a rule anything in which the women can engage at home, by which something may be earned, will in general be regarded as net profit throughout many sections of the land. In the silk districts of Europe agricultural machinery is very much less employed than with us, and in general every woman who can possibly be spared from other work is a field laborer and valuable as such. So that time taken for raising silk must be deducted from her other productive work and charged to the cost of the silk crop. I think that there can be no doubt that this one fact is quite sufficient to make the question of the cost of caring for the worms really as much in favor of the United States as at first glance it appears to be the other way; it being the case that in our country many who would be glad to do the work have spare time to give to it, whereas in Europe every hour that is given to silk-worms would otherwise be spent in the field.

In the South there are very large masses of inhabitants who are unable to work in the fields, both men and women, and who would also find in a yearly crop of silk-worms a very comfortable addition to their yearly gains, and one which could be derived from time not otherwise convertible into money. Land is very much dearer, and taxes are higher in the European silk districts than with us, and every little crop of cocoons has to pay its share, which adds a considerable percentage to its cost.

The buildings possessed by peasants and used for the raising of silk-worms are, in general, small, close, and miserable. Throughout America the roomy barns which are empty at the cocoon season, will, with

little preparation, be much preferable, and enable the raisers to work to very much better advantage.

In Europe diseases of several kinds have become more or less prevalent, and in some cases have diminished the production of whole districts.

Notwithstanding the fact that many experiments have been made in America, and in Georgia particularly, and silk has been raised continuously for over a century, these diseases (*maladies des vers à soie*) have never made their appearance.

The people of our country are, as a rule, much better educated than those in Southern France and Italy, and will undoubtedly use their intelligence in such a way as to derive a benefit from it, and economize their labor by proper appliances, &c.

Taking all these facts into consideration, I am convinced that there will be no difficulty in raising cocoons for the same cost in labor in the United States as in Europe, and I am inclined to think that the work can be much more cheaply done.

It is true that the United States is not an especially good market for cocoons; in fact, up to this time there has been scarcely any market at all for them; but with the organization of the industry and the introduction of reeling machinery, the market will be at least as good there as elsewhere. As to whether it will be "worth while" for our people to raise silk-worms, I would say that though the amount of money to be made by any one family is certainly not very large, it is nearly all clear profit, and under the circumstances which I have above pointed out, and which exist so generally, I am sure that the sum to be realized will be regarded as very important by a vast number of people. As in other points, it is extremely difficult to make any exact estimates on such a subject which would be generally applicable to a country so large and so various in climate, soil, and social habits as ours. I am inclined to think, however, that were the members of an average family, under average circumstances, to raise a crop of cocoons, the amount which could be advantageously reared should produce, according to circumstances, from $75 to $200. Scarcely any "paying" result can be hoped for, however, without more or less organization of the work, as sericulture is an industry which is very sensitive to the evils of a want of proper co-operation among those who carry on its various processes. After some reflection I am of the opinion that individual growers will have great difficulty in selling cocoons if they are isolated from others, and I therefore doubt the wisdom of encouraging sporadic and ill-directed efforts, which, however well meant and earnestly pursued, are much more apt to end in disappointment, discouragement, and discredit to the newly developing industry than in anything else. It seems to me to be neither wise nor fair to furnish estimates of returns, which presuppose an organization of the industry, without mentioning the difficulties which must be encountered where the organization is lacking. The great difficulty is in selling the cocoons after they are raised, and this can only be practically overcome by such a development of the culture as will result in the production, within the limits of a given neighborhood, of sufficient quantities of cocoons to make it practicable to prepare and forward them to market. It is as well known as any other fact in trade, that small transactions are much more costly in proportion than large ones, and this general rule is especially applicable to the cocoon market. The product of two or three isolated families in the interior of our country could not be marketed to advantage. Whereas, were several hundreds engaged on the work in the same vicinity the charge of marketing their joint crop would be only a small percentage of its value.

Silk-raising is the work of an organized people, and before it can become successful in our country must possess proper channels for its trade, just as much as wool, or cotton, or wheat. The machinery of this organization, however, need not be either complicated or expensive. What is required is a system of nuclei in towns or large villages, which may serve as centers of information and as gathering receptacles for the crops of surrounding producers.

The details of organization must be left, and I think may safely be left, to the good sense of the people of different sections, who will work out the problem in different ways, according to their different circumstances. Even were the need of organization not made evident to those undertaking sericulture in the beginning, it would soon become so, as it has, in fact, in several parts of the country. I have therefore deemed it proper to call attention to the matter, on the principle that "a stitch in time saves nine." I am informed that there exist already in the United States several associations devoted to acquiring and disseminating knowledge of the art of sericulture. This is a very great step in the right direction, and cannot be too heartily commended. If conducted with prudence and wisdom these societies will be of great service, and I would respectfully suggest that any encouragement which the government may think proper to afford would in all probability be extremely useful and profitable to the country in the future. Provided, always, that such societies are really devoted to the dissemination of information, and the careful organization of the industry, and are not merely visionary and impractical cultivators of misapplied enthusiasm.

It would I think be of importance, so far as possible, to direct the attention of county and State agricultural societies, "village improvement clubs," and in general the intelligent and careful portion of our rural population to this matter. It is beyond doubt that the time when sericulture can be begun and carried on profitably in our country has arrived. Its successful introduction would result in a very important yearly revenue and increase in the public wealth, for I think that within a comparatively few years it could be made to be worth at least fifty or sixty millions of dollars per annum, and perhaps much more. This, however, is a less advantage than the fact that by supplying a new home industry it would do much towards conserving home ties and interests, and thereby help to strengthen and perpetuate good morals and home living among our people.

BEN FRANKLIN PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, October 20, 1881.

THE FIGHT AGAINST AMERICAN PORK IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL STERNE, OF BUDA-PESTH.

I transmit herewith two clippings of the Pesther Lloyd newspaper on the pork question. The first one, that of October 13, states that—

> The mixed commission which had been appointed upon the representations of the United States Government, and which aimed at the repeal of the prohibition against American pork, has concluded that no cause exists to rescind the said prohibition which was passed in the interest of public health.

It seems that the present action was especially based upon "important explanations, by a Mr. Mihalovics." I have taken steps to discover in

what these "explanations" consist, and will inform the Department thereon on gaining the information. The second clipping of October 18th I transmit because it not only shows that the agitation against American pork is continued, but also because it contains words which may be called "skirmishers" against American meats in tin cases. I translate that part of this clipping, which speaks of this canned meat:

Pork is also shipped in tin cases, against which mode of putting up warnings have already been published, from the fact that *beef* packed in cans has frequently been proven dangerous to health. It is therefore important to repeatedly warn the public against the use of canned meats in general.

In treating this question in general, I hope the Department will not lose sight of the fact that Hungary imports very little, if any, meat of any kind, and that though it claims "sanitary" motives for its action, the real motives are more likely to be found in "political economy."

HENRY STERNE.
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buda-Pesth, October 19, 1881.

[Translation.]

ON THE PROHIBITION OF THE IMPORTATION OF AMERICAN PORK.

To-day the deliberations of the mixed ministerial commission were directed to the representations of the American Government, designed to secure the abrogation of the prohibition of American hog products. The commission assembled under the presidency of Hon. George von Lukacs, the acting secretary of state. The members present were Leopold Gross, section councilor; Ludwig von Gross-Csatari, of the sanitary council; Director von Tormay, ministerial; Secretary von Mihalovics, and Secretary Dr. Lorinczy. Mr. Gross-Csatari, of the sanitary council, stated the causes of the prohibition and the present aspect of the question in a long speech, and impressively depicted the danger which might follow the abrogation of the prohibition. Leopold Gross and Director Tormay expressed the same opinions, and finally Hon. von Mihalovics gave important explanations on the subject. The ministerial commission then adjourned with the resolution that no grounds existed for abolishing the prohibition issued in the interest of the public health.

[Translation.]

AMERICAN PORK—(PACKED IN BOXES.)

The "Fundgrube" was the first journal in Germany to warn the public against the use of pork and lard imported from America. This warning was published on reliable data from the United States, that careful examination of these articles showed conclusively the presence of trichinæ therein, and further, because many weighty reasons strengthened the suspicion entertained that both the meat and lard of animals, diseased during a wide-spread epidemic, were used, and exported to Europe by unconscionable speculators. Our publication on this matter aroused at that time, even in America, the greatest excitement, and efforts were made from both private and official sources to refute the statements. Indeed, one American consul in Germany went so far in the excess of his zeal as to threaten a paper which had copied the article from the Fundgrube with a judicial suit. Since then, however, even American papers have published declarations proving that our information in regard to the export of meat and lard of diseased animals was only too well founded. Further, in relation to trichinæ in American pork, the truth is known in spite of all to the contrary from America, and attempts at palliation can no longer avail. Not only have numerous inquiries in Germany and France proved that American pork is infested with trichinæ, but even in America lately, through competent judges, it was discovered that nearly 5 per cent. of hogs there are trichinated. Therefore, the standing prohibition in many of the European states against the importation of infected meat is completely vindicated. As, however, these meats are sent in tin cases, which on examination have repeatedly been proved to be injurious to health, it will not be out of place again to give general warning against the use of American meats packed in boxes.

OUR TRADE WITH RUSSIA.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL WEBER, OF MOSCOW.

I have the honor to submit the following suggestions for the advancement of American industries and manufactures in this country:

The trade between Moscow and the United States has, during the first three-quarters of the current year, been almost exclusively from Moscow, nothing worthy of note coming from the United States, in exchange for the shipments of Russian products. From Moscow there have been exceptionally large shipments of wool, camel's hair, goat skins, and linen crash.

It is difficult to obtain reliable official figures regarding the imports of American goods into this market, from the fact that practically nothing is imported direct from the United States, two small lots of pumps and one of tubing being the extent of the direct importations so far as can be learned.

Many American goods are, however, sold by English and German houses, and many more imitations of American specialties are placed upon the market by these houses. These imitations are principally in such goods as are known in the United States as "shelf hardware," hinges, carpenters' tools, and trimmings and bronze goods. But they also extend to farm mills, paint, and drug mills, and of late are becoming frequent in the line of agricultural implements.

In many cases the castings for these goods are made directly from the American castings, and in some cases the original firm name, with the address "N. Y.," or elsewhere, has never been obliterated; but in no case can they bear comparison, either in finish or efficiency, with the goods from which they are imitated. The purchaser here expects and believes he receives "American goods," of whose good reputation he has heard or read, and after trial of the imitations, he very naturally objects to "American goods," if these are a fair sample.

There are English and German houses doing business here through their agents, who carry stocks of and sell the manufactures of good houses in the United States, and yet who receive an order for such goods "under protest," who never attempt to push their sales, and who, in some instances, have the most absurd imitations (to an American eye) manufactured here in Russia and sold as the "American system." As it is a well-known fact that, in at least some of these cases, the imitation costs more than the authentic tool or machine would, delivered in Moscow, it is difficult to say why such a course is followed, unless the manufacturer and merchant fear that the introduction of one class of goods would be the entering wedge which would perhaps speedily destroy his manufactures in other and kindred lines. However this may be, there is a constant and growing inquiry for certain lines of American goods, and this is specially noticeable in hand tools, small domestic and farm mills and agricultural implements. I venture the assertion that in every case where this inquiry comes directly from the consumers, he asks for the best "American system" of machine or implement, and I venture the further assertion that in no case does he get any machine or implement manufactured in the United States.

American makes of farming implements, plows, mowers, and harvesters, especially have been introduced in the northern governments by several proprietors who farm their own estates, and this introduction has brought about a demand in certain districts which have been to some extent supplied from America and England.

The German and English manufacturers place large stocks of their implements upon consignment in Russia, and the merchant receiving goods upon such terms is naturally opposed to the introduction of other goods for which, if he sells them, he must pay two or three months in advance of their receipt; the purchaser of such goods on the other hand may earnestly desire an American machine, but is not prepared to wait from three to four months for its arrival from America.

There are many other American specialties which would sell readily and well in Russia, even at higher prices than the compulsory German and English goods, but they are practically not in the market, and to be sold to advantage there should be stocks of such goods here in Russia, and arrangements made for prompt and continuous renewal of such stocks. A merchant who receives six or nine months' credit from German, French, and English manufactures can hardly be expected to push the sales of competing American goods, especially where he must pay for them with the order, and wait at least two months for their receipt; particularly is this the case in a land where money is worth twelve per cent. per annum.

It will be readily understood that this relates especially to the merchant who receives and sells goods, the consumer generally pays cash for his purchases; that is the general rule, and the exceptions are rare; if the American tools, machines, and implements were here when wanted there would be little or no difficulty in selling them, but in view of the facts as stated there is very little hope of introducing them through the Russian merchants unless important concessions are made by the manufacturers.

It has appeared to me that such introduction might easily be made by several American houses whose specialties do not compete each with the others, sending out stocks in charge of one or more agents for the express purpose of exhibition and introduction. The combination would lessen expenses, and if all the specialties were for the use of one class of consumers, one man might represent several houses well.

For a combination including manufactures of all agricultural and farm implements, there is at once a demand either at St. Petersburg, Moscow, or Odessa.

For another, to embrace carpenters and machine tools at Moscow.

And for mills and milling machinery, paper-mill machinery, and sugar-mill machinery, such a coalition would find an open field in Central and Southern Russia.

Indeed, I have every reason to believe that in the matter of agricultural and farm implements the three points named should be occupied at once, and that each would find a remunerative market from the first.

AUGUST WEBER,
Vice and Acting Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Moscow, Russia, October 3, 1881.

COMBINATION AGAINST AMERICAN SEWING-MACHINES.

REPORT BY CONSUL POTTER, OF CREFELD.

On the 25th of October, there appeared conspicuously, in a daily commercial paper, published in this city, the following article, which I herewith inclose with translation. As it purports to represent the views of a combination of German manufacturers regarding an important branch of American industry, I have deemed the article of sufficient consequence to translate and forward.

This article has little importance except as an exhibition of the feeling engendered by the rapid increase in the sales of the manufactured products of the United States in this part of Germany.

I make no comment upon the tenor of this article, or the character of the statements contained in it. If it is given to the press and brought at an early moment to the notice of the companies whose interests are sought to be affected, I have no doubt an effective reply will be given, and a renewed effort made to still further increase the demand for and sale of American sewing-machines in Germany.

J. S. POTTER.
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Crefeld, November 3, 1881.

[Translation.]

A WORD ABOUT THE "GENUINE" AND THE "NOT GENUINE" SEWING-MACHINES.

"Genuine Grover and Baker"! "genuine Wheeler and Wilson"! "genuine Singer sewing-machines"! "genuine" and "only genuine"! "alone genuine"! "exclusively genuine"! "the only genuine"! "the only original!" So goes the song, and in all tunes. That is the way the German public have allowed itself to be roared at by the American sewing-machine companies for the last ten or more years.

In this way the German sewing-machine industry has allowed itself to be suspected, and in its entirety pronounced as not genuine, and the manufacturers, with their ten thousand workmen, to be regarded as a lot of imitators.

The undersigned association of German sewing-machine manufacturers and dealer have combined in order to make an effective demonstration against this morally unworthy and tantalizing state of things, which is so detrimental to our national interests.

If we ask what there is *real* in all this hue and cry about "genuineness," the answer will be nothing but simply *genuine* American conceit and arrogance.

Did it ever occur to Stephenson, the inventor of the locomotive, to say, the locomotives in use in the world were not "genuine" because they were not made in his manufactory?

Is any German insane enough to pretend to say that the powder for the needle guns used by the Austrians, Russians, French, and Americans is not "genuine," or that the watches they carry in their pockets, or the process of spectral analysis, are not "genuine" because they were not invented in Germany? Certainly not; we have too much sense for that. It was left to the native country of *Barnum* to invent the ingenious terms of "genuine" and "not genuine," of "original" and "not original" sewing-machines, and by their use to embarrass and confuse entire communities of our people who have had no opportunities for learning the truth.

The names of the inventors, Singer, Wilson, Grover, appear to the public at this date, all over the world, as firm or business names. They are used principally as designations of certain kinds of sewing-machines, just as the name of "Bessemer" is ued to designate a peculiar kind of steel.

The Americans, with the phrases of "genuine" and "not genuine," try to obscure and cry down this common-sense version, although the English, American, and German courts of law, notwithstanding the fondness and rage of Americans for lawsuits, and the confidence with which they enter into them, have decided the version we give as the just and legal one.

In fact this sort of humbug was too strong for endurance even by the countrymen of Barnum, for the Singer Company have had to accept the verdict of a court in Muscatine, in the State of Iowa, which places that concern in a condition of moral bankruptcy.

The judge, in substance, declared that it was not the calumniated sewing-machines, those that were proclaimed as "not genuine," that were the imitation ones, but *their own* (the Singer) were the imitations, because, since the expiration of the patent on them, their machines had been perfected by other manufacturers, and they (the Singer Company) had been obliged to accept and use some of these improvements. Therefore, it was their own so-called "genuine" machines that were *really* the imitations.

The sewing-machines, as they were made by the inventors, Singer, Wilson, and Grover, in their time, and which would be mostly entitled to be called "genuine," are now so far surpassed by others that they would be actually useless for modern requirements. Indeed, one might say in the sense of the decision of that judge at Muscatine, "the more *genuine* the more *inferior*."

In the course of time the iron sewing damsel has been changed and improved hundreds of times, particularly in Germany; and the statistics of the German imperial patent office at Berlin furnishes the clearest proof that Germany has been making unremitting endeavors to perfect all kinds and systems of sewing-machines.

The secret is thus explained, of how, in the face of this giant humbug, Germany could establish an industry in sewing-machines more extensive, with one exception, than any other in the world. It is true that Germany is obliged to export quite two-thirds of its productions, because, on account of the disreputable calumnies referred to, it cannot, as yet, secure the well earned confidence of the German public, and a corresponding home market, although, on an average, the prices of the German article are lower and the quality superior to that of other manufacturers.

To the statements here made the Americans will, most likely, reply with much vigor. But don't allow yourself to be bamboozled! Any machine is "genuine," which is *socially* made and answers the purpose perfectly for which it was manufactured. *If the German sewing-machines are examined with genuine German profoundness*, one will find, as did that American judge, that the so much vilified "*not genuine*" machines are more "*genuine*" than the "*genuine*" ones.

We beg the Geman public not to allow, as it has heretofore done with genuine German good-nature, a great branch of German industry to be further caluminated with impunity, in its own house. Our individual interests, as well as the economic interests of the nation, can only be promoted by the action we recommend.

The Americans have been beaten in quality and they are limping behind in all improvements. They "adjust" badly, and are clumsy and insignificant in their "outfittings"—in short, "poorly on the outside and rattling on the inside"! ("aussen, dürftig"-innern, klapprig.) And, as to price, they cannot make head against our competiton, as will be proved on inquiring at the places where German machines are on sale. They are only unsurpassed in their enormous humbuggery, which, we are sorry to say, is backed up by capital.

To overcome this the German public should refuse to give any credence to their statements, for they deserve none. Don't allow yourselves to be bambooled or cajoled! *Examine!*

(Signed by Concordia Association of German Manufacturers and dealers in Sewing-Machines.)

AMERICAN INVENTIONS IN EUROPE.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

American inventions, and consequently American inventors, are becoming so well known in Europe, are imitated, copied, stolen, or, to speak more mildly, *appropriated* with slight modifications that I deem it a part of the duty of the consular corps to watch over and bring to notice whatever of these discoveries on the part of the genius of our country may seem to have, or have, the prospect of exercising a marked effect upon the economical and social problems which science is yearly evolving.

I have already in previous dispatches referred to a new silk reeling-machine invented by M. E. W. Serrell, jr., an American engineer, and to-day I have to report that a new silk-testing machine has not only been invented by the same gentleman, but has already been adopted in France and Italy, while several of these machines have been purchased by some of the most enterprising of our American silk manufacturers, one of whom has sent a machine to Japan to test the silk of that country.

So remarkable and ingenious is this invention considered by the experts of this great silk emporium, that a paper on the subject has been read by one of the most gifted (M. Adrian Perret) of silk scientists before the Scientific Society of Lyons, and the Silk Condition House (the largest in the world) has now adopted it as indispensable.

A few words will suffice to explain the use and importance of this apparatus.

Raw silk, that is to say, silk as reeled from the cocoon and imported for the use of our silk mills, is really a manufactured article, and moreover an article the value of which depends very largely upon the excellence of the manufacturing processes through which it has undergone.

The filature (reeling) of silk comprises three operations, each requiring considerable skill and great care to produce good silk with the machinery at present in general use. In the final operation of reeling, the *grége*, or raw silk, is made. This *grége* is the thread, which is afterwards doubled and twisted to form the warps and woofs of silk goods which in the silk trade are known as organzines and trams.

The raw silk is an exceedingly fine thread, as may be imagined when it is stated that a moderately fine *grége* is of such size that a pound weight of it forms a thread about 280 miles long. Fine as it is, however, the single thread of raw silk is formed of from four to ten or more separate filaments, each derived from a separate cocoon.

To reel the silk the cocoons are put into hot water, and the filaments from several of them being united by being pressed together adhere to one another because of a natural gum with which they are covered and which is softened by the hot water. The thread resulting from the union of these filaments (which is the raw silk) is then wound on a reel, the cocoons each paying out its filament until exhausted.

The reeler's business is to form this thread of raw silk and *to keep it as regular as possible* in size by adding new cocoons to the running thread as required. Without going into details it is enough to say that it is extremely difficult to reel with regularity; only the best reelers working with the greatest care and under the most favorable conditions succeeding in making an extremely even thread.

Now the degree of regularity has a great influence upon the price of silk. For example, China silks, which are produced from exceedingly good cocoons, are not regular in size, which fact alone affects their price to a very considerable extent per pound, according to the market.

Up to the present time it has been extremly difficult to test the regularity of silk. This has in fact been one of the greatest and most universally felt wants in the trade. So difficult is it that silk has been and is yet bought and sold very much according to the reputation of the establishment at which it has been reeled, it being impossible to judge exactly of the regularity of any silk until made up into goods, at which time any defects show and mar the beauty and the value of the fabric.

Irregularities also cause breakages and consequent expense, waste, and knots during the manufacture of the silk, and are, therefore, especially to be avoided for threads designed for use upon highly speeded American machinery and run by our high-priced labor. So great is the

value of known regularity in raw silk that some reelers in France are enabled to obtain from 40 to 50 cents per pound extra for their silks over regular prices for first-class silks, simply because of their reputation and the belief that their silk will upon manufacture be found to have been well reeled. An approximate method for testing called *titrage* has been employed. This consists in winding off and weighing numerous samples of thread of an equal known length. The differences in weight give the irregularities of the average weight of each sample, but the method is extremely defective and laborious; its worse defect being that a sample of a given length may be regular and of the same size throughout, or, on the other hand, extremely irregular and uneven, without affecting the result, as the errors balance one another.

The "titrage" is, therefore, of very little value as a test of the regularity, and is rather employed as a means of judging of the average size in order that estimates may be made as to quantities required for a desired fabric.

Mr. Serrell's invention, which in Europe has received the name of the "Serigraph" has been subjected to the most critical experiments both in Lyons and at Milan and by the most eminent and experienced reelers and throwsters of Italy and France.

For several months before any of these machines were offered for sale an experimental machine was kept constantly running in Lyons and at the disposition of all who wished to perform experiments or to examine it in any way. Great interest was exhibited in the new device, and it was proved in every way by very prominent people. The trials in fact were carried almost to the extreme; some reelers going so far as to have silk reeled on purpose to test the machine, and possessing unusual characteristics which were not previously mentioned, but which, when subjected to the serigraph trial, were invariably set forth in strong relief, to the surprise of those who had not counted on such results. In no single case did the machine fail to do its work, and under the most severe trials and in spite of its being the first of the kind made and almost an experiment in itself, it has always given constant and reliable results and always shown exactly the degree and regularity of the silk to the satisfaction of all who have seen it operate, a fact which any one acquainted with machinery will appreciate as showing the inherent excellence of the machine.

The operation of the "Serigraph Serrel" is as follows: The silks to be tested are either wound upon a bobbin or placed, if in hanks, upon a swift in such manner that it can unwind freely and pass continuously through the machine. The end of the skein or of the silk on the bobbin is then taken to the machine, passed several times around a small drum covered with India rubber, thence to an agate hook, which is mounted at the end of a pendulum hanging vertically at a distance of half a yard from the drum, thence around a second drum, which is mounted upon the same shaft and turns with the first, and is like it, covered with India rubber. After making several turns around this second drum, the end of the silk is attached to a reel which receives it as it leaves the machine. An essential point in the machine is that the second drum is somewhat larger than the first. The thread being mounted as described, the drums are put in motion and the test begins, and is made as follows: At any given yard in its length the silk is first drawn in by the first drum, and is wound around it and delivered by it towards the pendulum with a speed exactly equal to that of the surface of the drum itself.

As the silk leaves the first drum and passes the pendulum hook, it is drawn in by the second drum with a speed 3 per cent. greater than that

with which it is delivered by the first drum. This happens because the second drum is larger than the first, and therefore its being on the same shaft its surface has a greater velocity. The effect of this arrangement is to *stretch* each yard of silk 3 per cent. at the time that it is passing the hook on the pendulum.

Now silk being an exceedingly strong and elastic thread, the force required to make this elongation is quite sufficient to pull aside a pendulum, carrying a pencil point, and sufficiently heavy to cause the pencil to make a distinct and clear mark. In fact, the pendulums on these machines are supplied with pencils, and there is an endlesss band or roll of paper which is fitted to run under the point of the pencil and to advance while the machine is running with a speed equal to $\frac{1}{500}$ that of the silk which is passing the first drum.

This paper resembles the band used for recording-telegraph instruments, and is carried in much the same kind of a holder. The thread and paper being arranged as described, the machine is put in motion. There is at once produced a tension upon the thread between the two drums which draws the pendulum to one side until by its weight it opposes a force equal to that required to stretch the silk.

When this point has been reached, the pendulum remains stationary as long as there is no change in the silk passing the hook, and as the paper advances a straight line is traced upon it by the pencil. But with the passage of the least irregularity in the silk, as either more or less force is required to balance the stretch, the pendulum and its pencil assume a new position and the line upon the paper is changed. In point of fact, it is quite impossible to produce a perfectly regular silk, and therefore the pendulum and pencil are in constant motion and the line produced upon the paper is more or less controlled and curved.

The practical result is that all the defects and irregularities of the silk are shown upon the paper, exaggerated about one hundred and twenty thousand times and drawn by the machine itself to a regular scale so as to form a continuous diagram. The indications of the quality and the "workmanship," so to speak, of the thread are perfectly distinguishable, and an exactitude is attained in this test which is incomparably greater than to be had in any other way.

About a foot in length of this diagram represents a mile of thread, and the speed of the machine is such that this mile of thread can be run through it and all its irregularities exposed in ten minutes.

In service, when any particular line of silk is sought to be examined, several skeins or bobbins are taken and a greater or less length from each is run through the machine. In this way an exact knowledge of its average quality, which may be implicitly relied on, is at once obtained and the silk is in no way injured by the operation. Nothing is required in the operation but to put on the silk and turn the handle of the machine.

In Italy, at the Milan Exposition, it was found that the peasant women who were employed about the winding machine on exhibition there could run the machine as well after half an hour's practice as if they had been used to it all their lives.

Contrary to what might be imagined, the "Serrell serigraph" is not a delicate piece of mechanism, or at all likely to get out of order. Its parts, which are very few, are all strong and solid, and only the greatest carelessness can in any way derange or damage it. Besides being fitted for showing irregularities, yard by yard, the machine measures the silk and is arranged to stop automatically when a desired length has been wound off, so that the sample may be used for weighing, that

the *titre* may be shown. It has also an automatic arrangement which causes it to stop instantly if the thread breaks.

It can be run by power if desired, in which case one woman can attend to several, or, a long test being desired, the machine can be started and left to itself to finish its work, the automatic attachments being such that it will stop of itself if all is not going right.

As the raw material is so exceedingly costly, a careful selection of it is of the greatest importance to silk manufacturers, and, moreover, the beauty and the value of the goods produced, and the cost of producing them, depend more or less on the exact adaptation of the raw silk to the work in hand.

European manufacturers have great advantages over Americans in this respect, as the habit of centuries enables them more or less empirically to select their raw silks with great care.

It may be well believed that the employment of the "Serrell serigraph" which I have sought to describe, and which, while so ingenious is so simple and practicable, will add a very important step to the many advances which our manufacturers have made, enabling them to work more economically and exactly, and very soon rival their competitors in every part of the world.

BEN. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, October 22, 1881.

AMERICAN SHIPPING AT AMSTERDAM—WHAT IT WAS AND WHAT IT IS.

REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN.

The subject of the unsatisfactory, if not deplorable, condition of our merchant marine, concerning which so much is being said and written in the United States and so little done to improve it, has long since attracted the attention of foreigners, especially Europeans, and all sorts of comments are frequently indulged in by them.

Those who for some reason or from some motive or another disapprove of or dislike our protective tariff are always sure to ascribe to it the decline in our shipping.

The fact that the American flag is nowadays but so rarely seen floating from the mast-heads of our ships in foreign ports is quite galling enough to an American residing abroad for any length of time; but this feeling is immeasurably intensified by such remarks as one so often hears on the subject from foreigners, though they may be ever so proper and justifiable. At this port there arrived during the past ten months of the current year two American vessels, and there are not likely to be any more recorded to the end of it.

On looking over the old records of the consulate I find that in the year 1823 there entered and cleared at Amsterdam 102 American vessels. In order to mark the contrast in American shipping at this port between then and now, and during the intermediate period, I have the honor herewith to submit a statement showing the number of American vessels entered and cleared at Amsterdam, and their aggregate tonnage for each year from 1823—which is as far back as the records of the office

on shipping extend—to the year 1880, both inclusive. Following is the statement:

Years.	Number of vessels entered and cleared.	Tonnage.	Years.	Number of vessels entered and cleared.	Tonnage.
1823	102	26,853	1852	8	3,791
1824	42	12,273	1853	11	5,320
1825	48	12,625	1854	12	6,773
1826	62	16,944	1855	17	9,559
1827	59	16,050	1856	18	11,277
1828	50	14,295	1857	18	11,003
1829	62	16,766	1858	12	7,072
1830	67	17,957	1859	9	6,385
1831	45	13,274	1860	15	9,090
1832	72	19,480	1861	21	10,287
1833	62	16,335	1862	15	10,843
1834	63	16,554	1863	6	5,156
1835	43	11,187	1864	4	3,760
1836	33	8,583	1865		
1837	43	16,330	1866	1	1,093
1838	54	14,652	1867	1	427
1839	40	12,682	1868	6	5,527
1840	86	26,372	1869	6	5,381
1841	49	16,960	1870	14	8,322
1842	59	20,047	1871	25	14,138
1843	49	17,411	1872	5	2,950
1844	37	13,965	1873	9	6,700
1845	30	11,936	1874	12	10,573
1846	31	11,285	1875	10	7,142
1847	18	7,294	1876	13	10,306
1848	20	7,502	1877	12	8,590
1849	28	9,195	1878	16	12,820
1850	9	4,435	1879	8	5,899
1851	15	5,967	1880	10	8,439

During the year showing the largest number of vessels arrived, the majority of them came from United States ports, and all with cargoes. Thus, in 1823, when 102 vessels arrived, 75 of them came from American ports; 14 from Alexandria; 17 from Baltimore; 13 from New York; 6 from New Orleans; 7 from Charleston; 9 from Boston; 2 from Savannah; 2 from New Bedford; 2 from Providence, and 3 from Philadelphia.

By far the greater number of them returned direct to the United States, but whether carrying outward cargoes or in ballast the records do not show.

It is observable, almost at a glance at the above statement, that all the vessels arriving here in early days were very small, but, to make it still clearer and for greater convenience, I classified them in the following statement by setting down the total number of vesssels arrived during a given period, the total tonnage of the same, and their average tonnage:

Periods.	Number of vessels.	Total tonnage.	Average tonnage of each vessel.
From 1823 to 1830	425	115,806	About 272
From 1830 to 1840	522	147,034	About 280
From 1840 to 1850	402	141,967	About 353
From 1850 to 1860	129	71,582	About 555
From 1860 to 1870	75	51,564	About 688
From 1870 to 1880	134	95,879	About 716

As to the nationality of seamen, and taking this port as a criterion, it would appear that an American seaman is becoming quite a curiosity.

From 1823 down to 1863 or '64 it was frequently the case that the entire crews of vessels arriving here consisted of Americans, and it may safely be stated that during that whole period of time not more than one-fourth of all the seamen coming in the employment of American vessels were foreigners. This proporton has since then been reversed, and at this time the most striking feature in the shipping articles and crew lists of American vessels is the almost total absence of the names of seamen of American nationality.

It would have been gratifying to be enabled to present herewith a statement showing the entire shipping of this port from 1823 to 1880, so as to convey a correct idea of what proportion American shipping bore to the shipping of all nationalities during that period of time. To this end I made strenuous efforts, but could not obtain the data from which to present such a statement.

In this connection, I beg respectfully to remark that the Netherlands, advanced and progressive a country as it is, has hitherto utterly neglected to provide for a proper system of official statistics in any branch of its service.

The secretary of the "Association for Statistics in the Netherlands," at Amsterdam, recently stated publicly and in print that the government service of Holland, as far as the statement of official statistics is in question, is placed upon no higher plane than that of Turkey.

I have, however, been successful in procuring, through the kindness of the harbor-master here, a statement showing the aggregate number of vessels, of all nationalities, which entered and cleared at this port each year from 1860 to 1880, both inclusive, viz:

Year.	Vessels entered.	Vessels cleared.
1860	2,071	2,125
1861	2,133	2,125
1862	1,818	1,879
1863	1,801	1,813
1864	1,713	1,689
1865	1,642	1,677
1866	1,611	1,565
1867	1,531	1,560
1868	1,465	1,487
1869	1,328	1,357
1870	1,313	1,261
1871	1,588	1,643
1872	1,267	1,259
1873	1,237	1,256
1874	1,232	1,213
1875	1,020	1,040
1876	1,091	1,102
1877	1,540	1,515
1878	1,472	1,470
1879	1,526	1,506
1880	1,614	1,628

The next following is a statement showing in full the importance and extent of British shipping at Amsterdam for twelve years, or from 1869 to 1880:

ENTERED.

Years.	With cargoes.		In ballast.		Totals.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1869	257	73,247	4	1,047	261	74,294
1870	260	77,938	11	995	271	78,933
1871	400	123,224	8	904	408	124,128
1872	245	75,969	25	2,176	270	78,145
1873	215	71,458	18	1,557	233	73,015
1874	258	78,775	6	976	264	79,751
1875	238	72,450	2	116	240	72,566
1876	297	86,335	12	969	309	87,304
1877	477	188,458	42	25,231	519	213,689
1878	474	222,426	11	2,932	485	225,358
1879	460	250,763	16	7,955	476	258,718
1880	565	296,433	1	254	566	296,687

CLEARED.

1869	188	48,367	80	28,380	268	76,747
1870	166	46,945	99	30,084	265	77,029
1871	178	45,697	226	75,822	404	121,519
1872	201	53,664	73	25,753	274	79,417
1873	173	51,215	57	20,609	230	71,824
1874	163	45,677	105	35,022	268	80,699
1875	159	47,984	76	22,045	235	70,029
1876	217	59,104	96	30,029	313	89,133
1877	358	138,906	156	72,582	514	211,488
1878	297	116,179	182	103,270	479	219,449
1879	291	131,243	191	130,456	482	261,699
1880	332	141,963	233	154,773	565	296,736

Considering that much of the necessary ship-building material as well as labor can be found in the United States, it seems difficult to comprehend why or how ship-building there has become reduced to a minimum, compared to its extent of former years; and still further, when looking at the fact that so much of our foreign or ocean commerce, vast as it is and constantly increasing, consists of exports from our own ports of products and manufacturers of our own country, it seems still more surprising that this commerce is now almost exclusively in the hands of foreigners, not only at a cost of millions of dollars freight-money, which ought to be earned by our citizens, but, also, having to submit to the humiliation of seeing our flag almost banished from the seas.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, November 1, 1881.

AMERICAN TRADE AND SHIPPING AT IQUIQUE, PERU.

REPORT BY CONSUL MERRIAM.

Since my last report the conditions affecting the extension of trade with the United states continue, for the most part, unchanged. The proportion of American vessels arriving at this port, as compared with those of other first-class powers, is still very small. During the last four years only one American vessel has arrived direct from New York,

with an assorted cargo, only two from San Francisco, with barley, and three from Oregon, with lumber. American vessels arriving at this port, with few exceptions, make Valparaiso first, discharge their cargo, and then come here to load nitrate of soda for Europe or the United States.

The want of direct communication with this port is the principal obstacle to the development of trade with the United States. Freights from New York by steamer and the railroad on the Isthmus of Panama are so high that it does not pay to import by that route merchandise which occupies much bulk, and, as many articles of large demand, such as lard, kerosene, and furniture, for example, are bulky, merchants prefer to order their goods from Valparaiso and to pay higher prices for them than to pay high steamer freights and pay cash on the arrival of the invoice, or in advance at the time of sending on the order as many houses at home require.

I have persuaded some merchants to make the experiment of sending trial orders for goods to be brought by vessels bound to Valparaiso, which after discharging the bulk of their cargo there come here to load nitrate.

This indirect mode of importation, however, has its disadvantages, as a delay of several weeks might be suffered in New York for want of vessels bound to Valparaiso and Iquique; and if goods are shipped by vessels bound to Valparaiso ouly, the expenses of transshipment at that port, including damage by handling, loss of packages, &c., offset the advantages of lower first prices in New York.

The remedy needed is more ships, whether sailing vessels or steamers, which come direct to this port. Meanwhile, but little increase of trade can be expected. The consumption of American goods, however, imported by way of Valparaiso, is considerable, and is on the increase. Among others, may be mentioned lard, kerosene, chairs, iron bedsteads, cooking stoves, plated ware, cotton goods, sewing-machines, cutlery, and hardware of various kinds. The market is a good one, and, with the increased exportation of nitrate to the States, there ought to be an increased importation of American goods.

In my report of the fourth quarter of this year I shall give statistical tables showing the tonnage of vesssels of different nationalities which have entered and cleared at this port during the year 1881.

J. W. MERRIAM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Iquique, Peru, December 13, 1881.

AMERICAN SHIPS AND SEAMEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH, OF SAINT THOMAS, WEST INDIES.

The almost universal opinion of those interested in our shipping is that the law reqniring the collection of three months' extra wages for account of sailors discharged abroad should be repealed. I am not aware that there is any disposition on the part of Congress at the present time to alter this law. There can, however, be no question but that our shipping laws must and will be revised in the near future. When this is done the suggestions and recommendations made by consuls might be entitled to some consideration, as the natural presumption would be that they were based upon personal observation and practical experience.

In speaking of this law, Consul Marston, of Malaga, says in his report, published by the Department of State in the 10th number of Consular Reports, that—

American seamen, like American ships, are a thing of the past. On board of almost every American vessel you will find a sea-lawyer (generally the cook), who is well informed regarding our shipping laws; he is usually a bad man, who has gained control over the crew, and in whom they place implicit confidence. On arrival at a foreign port, having been at work during the voyage causing discontent among others, some disturbance is purposely created, which results in sending for the consul, and a conflict of evidence is produced from both sides which would puzzle a Tombs police justice. Affidavits upon affidavits are sworn to, facts distorted, and false evidence is produced in hopes that the consul will yield to their demands and discharge the crew, with three months' extra wages. If they are not successful they again make the same effort at the next port of arrival, correcting their evidence in respect to where they failed before; and thus it is, so long as they remain in the ship—the effort is renewed, till finally they arrive at some port where the consul decides, having honorably considered all the conflicting statements from both sides, to discharge the crew; the vessel is made to pay three months' extra wages for which the sailor never worked, but which the ship's owners have to lose.

The statements made by Consul Marston are entirely different from the facts that have been developed in cases of dispute between officers and crew that have come under my notice during more than five years' residence at a port where from two to three hundred American vessels enter and clear during the year. I am assisted by the consul himself in arriving at the conclusion that he does not base his report upon practical experience and personal observation, as he commences by saying that "Our flag is seldom seen in the harbor of Malaga."

I have nearly always found the best "sea-lawyer" on board of a vessel to be the master. He seldom fails when a dispute between himself and crew is being investigated to try to intimidate the consul as well as the complainants and witnesses, and when he fails in doing this he not unfrequently insinuates his willingness to place *evidence* in the consul's hands which experience has taught him sometimes has great weight in securing a settlement according to his wishes. I have also found that the cook, instead of enjoying the confidence of the sailors, is, as a rule, distrusted by them. They regard and treat him as the master's spy. In case of a dispute between officers and sailors he generally sides with the officers. When he is the complainant he seldom has the sympathy of the crew. My experience is that, as a rule, the officers are as apt to distort facts and produce false evidence as the sailors.

I have had occasion to investigate all conceivable kinds of complaints that could be made, and I cannot now recall a single instance where a sailor who desired to be discharged from a vessel has not expressed his willingness to waive all claims to the three months' extra wages to which he would be entitled if discharged. The reason why he does this is very plain. Before he goes so far as to make a formal complaint to the consul against an officer he has made up his mind to leave the vessel even if he has to desert. He knows that there would be less opposition to his discharge if the master was only required to pay him the wages he has earned, and that if he deserts he not only loses his wages, but all of his effects. He also knows that if the consul refuses to discharge him his life on board would be made very uncomfortable during the remainder of the voyage by the officer against whom he has complained. Sailors have very little confidence in being able to obtain what they deem to be justice when they submit their complaint to a consul. They know from experience that the statements made by the officers have more weight than those made by themselves. If a sailor who has failed to secure his discharge at one port should renew his application upon the same ground

before the consul at another port, and be by him discharged, the presumption is strong that he should have been discharged upon his first application. If he had a bad case he would be more apt to desert than to risk repeated refusals of his discharge.

From Consul Marston's point of view the law "demoralizes the service; offers a continued inducement for discontent, and sometimes mutiny; is disastrous to the owners of vessels, and is of no lasting benefit to the sailor." I can by no means agree with the consul that such is in fact the case. The reports of the Fifth Auditor show that the government annually expends from thirty to fifty thousand dollars over and above the amount of extra wages received for the relief and transportation to the United States of sailors who have been left destitute in foreign ports by the masters of our vessels. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1878, the government paid $800 for the relief, &c., of destitute sailors at the port of Malaga, while the one months' extra wages that had been collected aggregated but $144. It is to be presumed that the three months' extra wages collected, as well as the wages actually earned by the sailor, are applied to the defrayment of expenses incurred before the sailor is considered destitute or entitled to assistance from the government. If this is so, the amount of extra wages that actually go into the sailors' hands must be very small, and by no means calculated to demoralize the service or create discontent so far as the seaman is concerned.

It is obvious that by the passage of this law, Congress intended to encourage American citizens to man American vessels, and to discourage the master of such vessels from discharging such American seamen in a foreign port. The enccuragement consists in assuring them that they shall be humanely treated, and that under no circumstances whatever shall they be left in a foreign port without sufficient means, not only to defray their expenses while there, but those that they would have to incur in returning to the United States. The discouragement consists in requiring the vessel to pay an amount that is supposed to be sufficient to defray all expenses that would necessarily have to be incurred by such seaman in consequence of being so discharged. That the law has utterly failed to secure American seamen for our ships, or to prevent seamen being left destitute in foreign ports, is too evident to require reasserting.

Many reasons are assigned for such failure, some of which are practical and logical. One reason that I would ascribe for the same is that far too many of the officers of our ships are illiterate, profane, and brutal; officers whose orders are coupled with oaths and vile epithets and who enforce what they term discipline with a capstan bar or a marline spike. Such an officer does not hesitate to distort facts, swear falsely, attempt to corrupt consuls, force his men to desert, and leave them utterly destitute while he pockets their hard-earned wages. I have heard this class of men tell with evident pride how they hoodwinked this and that consul, how on cold winter days in the north, and parching hot days in the tropics, they have put their men over the side to paint (on the shady side in the first instance and sunny side in the second) in order to force them to desert and thereby forfeit the wages due them. I have also heard them tell how easy a master could get rid of a man by keeping him continually doing unnecessary work. That such is the case is evident from the certificates of desertions that are plastered all over their shipping articles, and which universally show that the deserter was indebted to the vessel. Such men, I am sorry to say, are generally good enough "sea-lawyers" to avoid the payment of extra wages abroad or punishment at home. It can be readily seen how they demoralize the service,

and why sailors serving under them are always willing to waive their claims to extra wages, or to consent to any proposition that will enable them to leave the vessel.

I do not by any means wish to be understood as implying that all masters and officers of our vessels are of the character I have described. Fortunately for our service, a very large majority of its officers are intelligent, honorable, and competent men, men who know what duty they can legally require a sailor to perform, when and how to require him to perform it, as well as how to enforce discipline, without violating the spirit or wording of the law. It is from this class of masters that extra wages are collected. When they wish to discharge a seaman in consequence of his sickness, incompetency, worthlessness, or as a matter of economy, they go to the consul, tell him what they wish, and ask him to do it on the most favorable terms he can, consistent with his duty and the law. The consul must, in all cases, exact the payment of one month's extra wages, and in many cases three. Thus it is that the law works a greater hardship upon the just than it does upon the unjust.

It is my opinion that when the time arrives for Congress to revise our shipping laws, the interests which the same are intended to guard and protect could not be better served than by adopting many of the provisions to be found in the English "merchant shipping act," under the head of: 1st. The board of trade, its general functions; 2d. Masters and seamen.

If Congress should see proper to provide for the organization of boards with powers and duties similar to those exercised by the board of trade and local boards, as defined in the act aforesaid; require all officers and seamen to hold certificates of competency, given to them only after due examination as to their sobriety, experience, ability, and general good conduct aboard ship, and to provide for naval courts, the demoralization that now exists in our service would soon disappear, and fewer of our vessels would find their way to the bottom of the ocean or to such graveyards as St. Thomas.

V. V. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
St. Thomas, November 1, 1881.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH NAPLES.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH.

With regard to American trade at this port I forward a statement, procured from the custom-house and other sources. It is incomplete, but as most of these importations come through England, or by foreign vessels, it is impossible to get an accurate statement.

Articles and value of merchandise imported at the port of Naples from the United States of America for the year 1880.

Petroleum and resin oils, in barrels and small casks	$292,361
Said oils, in tin boxes	190,088
Coffee	353
Gum and resin (crude)	69,088
Common soap	127
Wood and roots (unground)	3,750

Varnish	$39
Cotton, in bales	188,561
Unbleached cotton goods	20
Bleached cotton goods	51
New and old barrels	965
Unpolished wood works	85
Machinery (not described)	688
Grain (corn and wheat)	1,118,378
Flour	62
Sea biscuit	70
Meat (cooked)	30
Greases of all kinds (lards, &c.)	688,741
Total	2,553,477

From the above statement it is shown that our trade with this port is limited and fluctuating. Of the imports into Naples, that of grain is one of the most important for the reason that an average crop of grain does not suffice for the country's consumption, and even with a good harvest 200,000 tons of wheat are required from abroad. From 1862 to 1880 (excluding 1870 and 1871, for which the figures are wanting), the importations of wheat have exceeded 4,612,000 tons, an average of 271,000 tons per annum.

Although the wheat crop of last year in the Neapolitan provinces was unusually abundant, exports were on a small scale, owing to the fact that Russia having had a short crop of wheat, the imports from the Black Sea ports were necessarily restricted.

As Neapolitan and Puglia wheat is of the finest quality, and commands high prices in England, France, Germany, and other countries of the Old World, a large quantity is exported, and the deficiency made up by the importation of cheaper wheat from Russia.

Our American wheat too nearly approaches Neapolitan in quality and price to make imports profitable in an ordinary season.

Although the maize crop was an average one in Italy, it was considerably under an average in the Neapolitan provinces, owing to the want of rain. For this reason there was a fair importation of American maize for local consumption and also for the use of the distilleries.

According to the figures recently published by the Italian minister of agriculture, the crops in Italy of the past year have resulted as follows:

Wheat, 20,258,000 quarters against 17,458,000 quarters in 1879.

Maize, 10,166,000 quarters against 10,886,000 quarters in 1879.

Oats, 2,335,000 quarters against 2,320,000 quarters in 1879.

An average crop of wheat is estimated at 17,850,000 quarters of maize; 10,700,000 quarters; and of oats 2,430,000 quarters, so that the crops of 1880 were, for wheat 17 per cent. above an average, for maize 9 per cent. below, and for oats 3 per cent. below.

Exports (direct) from the port of Naples, to the United States of America are shown in the following statement from custom-house at Naples, viz:

Wine in barrels or small casks	$5
Wine in bottles	595
Olive oil, first quality	1,244
Old and new barrels	1,900
Basket works	20
White and colored paper	1,310
Sheet-iron	240
Copper and brass in other works	36
Marble statuary	240
Other marble works	96
Fine majolica works	223

Gilded majolica works	$46
Macaroni	9,114
Walnuts and filberts	44,960
Dried figs	43,722
Vegetable products (not described)	336
Cheese	929
Human hair	4,000
Works of art	380
Gilded porcelain	160
Total	109,556

There must be some mistake in the above statement from the custom-house, the records of this office showing a large excess of exports over the statement given. Some of the most important articles of export are not even mentioned, viz, rags, gloves, argols, and fruit.

Digest of invoice book for the year ending December 31, 1880.

Rags	$241,443 76
Gloves	189,167 80
Argols	123,725 28
Fruit	76,959 44
Macaroni	49,494 37
Skins	29,695 25
Liquorice	22,635 00
Oil, olive	17,816 24
Old iron	11,604 33
Sundries	9,745 36
Human hair	9,423 89
Silks	3,294 33
Wine	3,035 29
Objects of art	2,642 23
Coral	2,225 58
Total	792,908 15

After close observation and much reflection, I am convinced that the most promising way of advancing American trade in Italy and especially in the Neapolitan provinces, is by the actual residence of well trained American merchants or their accredited agents to introduce for sale on this market our varied manufactures and productions.

These merchants should understand the Italian language and be familiar with the customs laws and rules of trade of both nations. If a few depositories for American goods were established here by an association of our merchants and manufacturers, and conducted by Americans, it would greatly facilitate and probably insure the success of the enterprise suggested. The people of this enlightened nation are always ready to reciprocate courtesies and forward business relations with our people.

The Italian importations from the United States in the past have been chiefly limited to a few staples, as tobacco, petroleum, cotton, &c., and the occasional importation of cargoes of wheat, corn, lard, and cotton-seed oil, varying in kind and quantity as the failure of particular crops in Italy called for, and which from a similar failure of crops could not be supplied by the neighboring European and eastern countries. Without additional efforts on our part the history of this trade will be perpetuated as in the past.

Cotton-seed oil as an article of importation from the United States promised to become one of the leading articles of trade at Naples and elsewhere in Italy. It was found adapted to a variety of domestic and mechanical uses to which the more costly native oils had previously been applied.

Charges have been made, and in some instances, I believe, sustained that the cotton-seed oil was used in the adulteration of olive oil, one of the most cherished productions of Italy. The Neapolitan board of trade maintain that the standard olive oil is not and has not been adulterated with cotton-seed or any other oil. But, influenced by the injurious representations current here and proclaimed abroad by the public press, the Italian Parliament, to cut off any possible misuse of the oil in the way stated and I suppose to avoid even the appearance of evil, has increased the duty on imported cotton-seed oil from 6 to 20 per cent., thus effectually prohibiting its importation during the continuance of this law.

Resting upon its own merits as a pure, harmless, and useful vegetable oil, cotton-seed oil is in every way a legitimate article of commerce and as soon as its alleged abuse is guarded against, there can be no doubt its importation will be resumed in Italy and its uses greatly extended. It should certainly have its proper commercial status without opposition from any quarter.

The great commercial and manufacturing nations of Europe have for many years actively competed for a share of the trade of Naples and its provinces. Many English, French, and German merchants, manufacturers, bankers, and business men of other nationalities located here many years ago, and in making their own fortunes have built up a trade alike beneficial to their own countries and this community.

The United States of America, possessed of untold mineral wealth and other inexhaustible resources, is here without a resident representative engaged in any business calculated to advance its manufacturing and commercial interests.

Could our merchants and manufacturers realize the great consumption of foreign goods and productions in this populous country, and the active competition among the merchants and other business men of foreign nations for the extension of their commercial intercourse with this country, it would stimulate them to use extraordinary efforts to build up a permanent trade, which would equally benefit the United States and Italy.

This consulate is in constant receipt of letters, accompanied by elaborate and attractive circulars and other publications, from important merchants and manufacturers representing almost all the large cities of the United States of America, the writers wishing to have their contents made known to the resident merchants, asking who are the most trustworthy among them, and many other questions, showing a growing desire to place American goods upon this market. All such efforts are inadequate and must be unavailing.

American goods should be introduced and sold by Americans resident here, who can inform themselves and their friends at home of the requirements of trade here, of the description, style, and quality of goods suited to this market, as well as of the usual terms of sale, and of the certainty of filling orders promptly. Should American goods, sold by sample here, and especially when sold by foreign resident merchants, prove a success, there is no security that it would enure to American interests, when it is so easy to sell them as coming from another country, and even to imitate or substitute them by other fabrics of inferior quality and often sold at less price.

Our government could not more suitably show its desire to increase its intercourse and trade with this great nation than by the judicious bestowal of bounties and the prompt enactment of liberal maritime laws, which would induce American capitalists to invest a share of their im-

mense means in building steamships, to sail under our own flag and to ply regularly between American and Italian ports, which is successfully done by the English, French, and Italian companies sustained by their governments. Such a commercial marine manned by American officers and seamen enthused with the determination to make known to foreign nations the extent of our productions, the superiority of our manufactures, and our great internal resources not yet even surmised by them, would place the United States of America in the high position with the nations of the Old World that the magnitude of its interests and its noted progress command. Should our government favorably act upon such views we would be oftener cheered by the sight of our flag in this port.

E. H. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Naples, September 27, 1881.

THE TRADE OF RIGA WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT BOMHOLDT, OF RIGA, RUSSIA.

During the last five years there have been 15,155 ships in Riga, amongst which only five sailed under the American flag.

We have been exporting lately from the Russian Baltic provinces, especially from Riga and Libau, a mineral oil, which has hitherto been exported from the United States to Europe, and the importance of which I am convinced of, known in the trade by the name of oleonaphtha or bakuin, and manufactured from the dregs of petroleum after refinement; it is used for lubricating purposes. At present there are only two manufactories which supply railways and machines in Russia, and the oil has already been exported to England, France, Belgium, and Germany. From Riga and Libau are exported yearly about 80,000 barrels, and it is expected that the trade will be increased as much as possible, as the owners of the factory-works, Messrs V. J. Ragosine & Co., and Nobles Brothers are working with a very large capital.

Riga is increasing its trade gradually. Imports to this city have of late been considerable, though the quantity of goods from the United States is comparatively small, but I am convinced that this branch of trade could be worked up considerably if manufacturers and wholesale merchants in the States would take more interest in Riga.

The population of Riga is calculated at between 140,000 and 150,000 and is fairly increasing.

Riga serves as a depot for import articles, supplying many towns in the Baltic provinces and forwarding to the interior of Russia.

The increase of importation in the last ten years has been considerable; in 1870 the amount of goods imported being $11,537,511, and in 1880, $24,943,423.

These figures furnish the best proof of the large increase and the importance of the United States cultivating their business relations with this town more than they have done hitherto. In my report of January I drew the attention of exporters and manufacturers to the advantage to be derived from the establishment of stores in this locality, and should this not seem feasible, exporters might appoint their own agents who would introduce and make known the different useful and ingenious ar-

ticles of American manufactures, which are now being so generally exported to Europe.

Riga is now regularly visited by commercial travelers from England and Germany so that a large field is left in the hand of opponents.

I must particularly notice the large sale of agricultural implements and machinery, the value of which articles imported during the last year covered more than four million dollars. This is very favorable, for the farmers in the country are commencing to use these implements on a larger scale, so that it may be concluded that this branch has a good prospect ahead of extension. Herrings are also in great request, and the yearly import is about 60,000 barrels, principally Norwegian.

The export from Riga, during the year 1880, amounted to $27,648,661, consisting chiefly of grain (oats, rye, and barley, hemp and linseed), besides flax, hemp, fir deals, battens, sleepers, and timber. Tobacco was exported to the amount of $28,283.

The shipping here is important, and although but little belongs to this port, still it is yearly visited by about 3,000 ships, and the freight trade is yielding a fair profit for foreign ship-owners.

NIELS P. A. BOMHOLDT,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Riga, Russia, October 10, 1881.

TRADE OF PIEDRAS NEGRAS WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT, BY VICE-CONSUL SCHUCHARDT, ON THE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS. TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES, GENERAL COMMERCE, AND THE COAL FIELDS OF PIEDRAS NEGRAS.

The principal occupation of the inhabitants of this district consists in farming and stock-raising. The products of agriculture, mostly Indian corn, are exported for the consumption of the country between the Rio Grande and Nueces River, in Texas, which for the greater part is settled by sheep farmers. Cattle, horses, and mules are bought by American traders for export to Kansas, Colorado, and other States of the Union. The value of declared exports to the United States of corn and other agricultural products, during the year ending September 30, 1881, amounted to $25,435.49. The value of declared exports of cattle and hides, sheep and wool, horses and mules amounted in the same period to $116,109.57.

As all money expended for these products is returned for the purchase of goods through American merchants, the year yielding a good crop is proportionately a prosperous one for trade and commerce.

The port of Eagle Pass, Texas, opposite the port of Piedras Negras, Mexico, supplies this district with all kinds of goods, mostly of American manufacture, and some European goods on which import duties have been paid in the United States, as the "Zona Libre" does not extend up the Rio Grande as far as Piedras Negras. Import duties consequently must be paid at the time of importation of goods, and it will not pay for importers to bring European goods in bond through the United States to this part of Mexico.

The last year's sales at Eagle Pass, Texas, for this and the adjoining districts amounted approximately to $256,697. Of this amount about $30,000 are foreign goods, consisting for the greater part of Rio coffee. Although Mexico produces an excellent quality of coffee, very little of it is consumed in this district. The high freight from the interior to

this frontier makes it so high in price that it cannot compete with the Rio coffee brought from the United States. Of American domestic goods sold in this district, sewing-machines constitute an important item, and preference seems for the most part to be given to the Singer machine, which is found in almost all well-to-do households.

The purchase of these machines is greatly facilitated by the liberality of the agents who sell machines on credit and receive payment in installments.

On account of railroads being now under construction in this vicinity, working men have found a more remunerative employment on these roads than to work on farms, and therefore hands are hard to obtain at present, resulting to the detriment of agriculture.

In my opinion this is the time to introduce American labor-saving agricultural implements; but as the people here are adverse to innovations, enterprising American firms should send samples of their manufactures out here, so that people might see and convince themselves of the usefulness and advantage of adopting these improved implements.

It has only been quite recently that some of the inhabitants substituted the neat Milburn wagon for the clumsy two-wheeled ox-cart, and quite a number are in use at present; these wagons would be more generally sought if the Mexican import duties were not so extremely high, so much so that the duties on a common farm wagon amount to more than the cost price at the factory. This difficulty also applies to a great number of other American manufactures. With a liberal Mexican tariff the sales of American goods to this country could be trebled, and so, also, would be the revenues of the Mexican Government. There is a wide field for American enterprise, and an unlimited market for American manufactures in this country, but the market is at present only a small part of what it might be were the prohibitory duties removed. Merchants intending to engage in business in Mexico should first study the tariff and custom laws of Mexico, and in order to acquire some idea on that subject it would be advisable to read the very able and truthful article which appeared some time ago in the "American Exporter," written by Mr. Trowbridge, consul at Vera Cruz, on the tariff and contraband law of Mexico.

As an additional proof that this part of the country is not without the elements of future growth, I submit the following geological facts (received from Professor Hielscher) concerning Piedras Negras, Mexico, and Eagle Pass, Texas, on the Rio Grande.

The towns of Piedras Negras, on the Mexican side of the Rio Grande, as well as the town of Eagle Pass and Fort Duncan, rest on a layer of grayish-white sandstone, the lowest stratum of the magnesium limestone formation. This formation extends for five miles up the Rio Grande, and forms for that distance the bed of the river. Directly under Fort Duncan it disappears under growing formations, while across the river at Piedras Negras it rises above the water, and may be followed for several miles in a southwesterly direction on Mexican territory. On the American side there are, north of Eagle Pass, a series of hills which contain the upper strata of the magnesium limestone formation. These are—

	Feet.
1. A conglomerate with clay-containing corals	15
2. Clayey slate	6
3. Bituminous black slate	3
4. Clayey slate and limestone	7
5. Bituminous black slate	6
6. Clayey limestone	3
7. Yellowish-gray marl, with round bowlders of dolomite	15

On the Mexican side, instead of these, the lower strata of the formation, accompanied by salt, seem to be more developed; the grayish-white sandstone reaching a thickness of 45 feet.

Farther north this formation recedes, on the American side, from the Rio Grande, so that at 7 miles northeast of Eagle Pass, at a creek called the "Olmos" (Elm creek), the outcropping of the grayish-white sandstone is 4 miles distant, or east of the Rio Grande.

North of the Olmos the new red sandstone rises from under the grayish-white sandstone and about 7 miles from Eagle Pass there is the bituminous coal formation; a seam of good coal, equalling that of Ohio, and 7 feet thick, is seen outcropping close to the river and about 45 feet above the water's edge. The dip of all these formations is about 15 degrees to the southeast. Probably there are more seams than one of coal. I have found at the place before mentioned (7 miles northeast of Eagle Pass and 4 miles east of the Rio Grande), on the bank of the Olmos, directly under the grayish-white sandstone, another layer of coal, 2 feet thick, but inferior in quality to that near the Rio Grande.

This, then, would be the uppermost stratum, while that outcropping at the Rio Grande is a lower one. It seems that a stratum of coal crosses the river above the mouth of the Olmos, and for some distance at this point the river flows over coal, just as between Eagle Pass and Piedras Negra the river's bed is of grayish-white sandstone.

The coal-bearing region forms a dry high plain, 10 miles along the river and extending for about 6 miles eastward. How far the coal-fields extend into Mexico I have as yet no idea, but the fact that a seam of coal crosses the river makes it highly probable that on the Mexican side the lower and best strata rise to the surface, and that the area of the coal-field is about as large, if not larger, than on our side. One mile directly east from Eagle Pass a series of high steep bluffs extends 4 miles below the town to about 10 miles northeast, with the steep side toward the river, and sloping with a dip of about 10° southeast. These represent the Triassic or Saline formation.

There are three distinct parallel ridges on the American side; the first being the highest and the others overlying it and following in distances of half a mile and two miles respectively. The first of these ridges is at the base composed of dolomite and dolomite marl, and at the top of the upper, new red sandstone.

The second ridge is of shell limestone, full of beautiful shells of snails and ammonites. The third is the red marl of the English geologists. The first two formations are found only on the American side and, about 4 miles down the river; they end abruptly in a high bluff. The red marl, east of them, crosses the river; the lowest stratum is a gray, finely laminated clay, overlaid by 4 feet of coal, but of poor quality. The underlying clay, however, is very rich in salt and I have no doubt, that by boring wells into this stratum, especially on the Mexican side, where it is seen outcropping at the high river bank, plenty of salt could be found, and as the summers are hot and the atmosphere dry, it could be manufactured simply by evaporation of the water by the sun.

Some distance west of Piedras Negras a very porous, but durable fresh-water limestone is found. This in some places is the last upper stratum of the bituminous coal formation, and forms an excellent building material. I have not yet seen any indication of this limestone on the American side.

Just where the red marl formation crosses the Rio Grande, a beautiful, rapidly flowing stream, the "Rio Escondido," flows into the Rio Grande on the Mexican side. Its course is from northwest to southeast, and

on its right or southwestern bank a hill range, or rather ridge, extends from the Rio Grande far into the country, parallel with and up the Rio Escondido. At several places the water of the latter runs over ledges of rocks, indicating different formations and a few months ago some huge petrified bones were found in its banks.

The water of the Rio Escondido was needed for the irrigation of the plains on which Piedras Negras is situated (the plain itself being of a triangular shape), and the workingmen employed in digging ditches found these bones in the rock. I went over to Piedras Negras, where they had been deposited in the custom-house by the collector, and there found that they consisted of five vertebræ of the neck (6 inches diameter) and the hip and shoulder bones of an "Ichthyosaurus," an extinct animal, the remians of which are only found in the Lias formation, the next after the red marl.

This animal held about the medium place between a sea-turtle and an alligator, having the feet of the former and the teeth and tail of the latter; and judging from the size of its bones, this one must have been about 20 feet long. Such remains have heretofore only been found in the southeastern part of England and in Würtemberg, in Southern Germany, and I am not aware that any specimens of this species have ever been discovered before in America.

WM. SCHUCHARDT,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Piedras Negras, Mexico, October 30, 1881.

SHIP-BUILDING AT LIVERPOOL.

REPORT BY CONSUL PACKARD.

During the latter half of the year 1880, the ship-builders were well supplied with work at gradually rising prices, in consequence of orders coming from France, and also from the improvement of the freight market.

The improved rates of freight from India and California, to Great Britain and the continent, have more than maintained themselves; British ship-owners have therefore given large orders for tonnage, the result being that most of the good building yards are full of work at firmer prices.

It is difficult to place orders at present with delivery under fifteen or eighteen months, even at the advanced rates, and there is at present little chance of a reduction for the next twelve months.

On the continent of Europe, also, the prices will be fully maintained, if not advanced, as labor is becoming more costly to the builder. The men are very unsettled, and appearances indicate a determination on their part to share in the general improvement, and this no doubt has the effect of maintaining the high price of ship-building in this country.

The latest style of ship-building is "to go in for beam," as against length, which was the practice of the past decade.

The following statement gives the prices of screw steamers actually built within the last six months, equipped and ready for sea and suited

to the trade indicated, at the cost stated, by builders on the Mersey, Clyde, and east coast of England.

Trade.	Class.	Gross tonnage.	Net tonnage.	Dead weight capacity.	Knots per hour.	Consumption of coal, 24 hours.	Pressure.	Indicated horse-power.	Price U. S. gold.
Cargo steamers:						*Tons.*			
Adapted for general Atlantic trade	100 A. 1.	2.273	1,484	3,350	10.5	28	90	1,300	$167,894
Especially fitted for cattle	100 A. 1.	3.060	2,000	4,100	10 ½	30	80	1,450	214,126
Especially fitted for cattle	100 A. 1.	2.750	.....	4,000	11	24	80	1,500	223,859
For general and cattle trade	20 years L.	3.000	2,000	3,700	10 ½	25	85	1,250	243,325
Three decked rule	100 A. 1.	2.270	1,500	3,300	10	27	80	1,350	170,327
Spar deck	20 years L.	2.180	1,370	2,900	10	16	80	1,000	175,194
And passengers if required	100 A. 1.	2.090	1,349	3,050	9 ½	28	80	800	160,594
Also suitable for cattle..	100 A. 1.	1.765	1,130	2,400	9 ½	17	80	720	128,982
do do...	100 A. 1.	1.700	1,090	2,420	9	12	80	700	131,395
do do...	100 A. 1.	1.420	910	1,950	9	10	80	650	107,063
But easily arranged for passengers	100 A. 1.	1.410	916	1,670	9 ½	12	70	550	105,603
Awning deck especially built for cotton	100 A. 1.	1.970	1,270	2,600	9 ½	13	80	800	145,995
Awning deck especially built for cotton	100 A. 1.	4.044	2,060	5,080	13	35	90	2,000	291,990
Spar deck for Atlantic trade	100 A. I. & 20 years L.	2.677	1,747	3,600	11	26	90	1,540	184,927

The ordinary cargo steamers with fair speed, say one horse-power to 10 tons of gross tonnage, was, within the last three months, to be had from $48.67 to $51.10 per ton of dead-weight capacity; now (November, 1881) at least $53.53 to $58.40 would have to be paid with twelve months delivery.

There seems to be now a revival of a once given up type of engine, *i. e.*, the twin-screw as a propelling power for cargo steamers. This system has been adopted by a Liverpool firm, and applied to a steamer of dead-weight capacity of over 5,000 tons. At the present time there are not sufficient data to form an opinion, as to whether this style of engine and propeller will supersede the screw.

The high cost of iron sailing ships as compared with steamers with their expensive machinery, excessive weight of stern frame and motor may be explained as follows: Most of the ship-building yards are now stocked with plant applicable to the building of steamers which must be utilized, and all the large firms have an extensive staff of engineers and skilled workmen, that cannot be employed with profit in the construction of ordinary sailing ships.

The advance in the freight market and unprecedented success of long-voyage sailing ships, during the last twelve months, have caused shipowners to turn their attention to this type of ships. I am informed that sailing ships now building will cost from $65.69 to $68.13 per gross register ton.

STEPHEN B. PACKARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liverpool, November 1, 1881.

CATTLE TRADE OF LIVERPOOL.

REPORT, BY CONSUL PACKARD, ON THE SANITARY CONDITION OF ANIMALS IN GREAT BRITAIN, FOR THE YEAR 1880.

I have obtained from the office of the veterinary department of the privy council at London, in advance of publication by that office, a return of the number of cattle, sheep, and swine imported from the United States into the port of Liverpool during the first six months of the present year, viz: 24,835 cattle, 17,094 sheep, and 1,030 swine. Also, the number of cattle, sheep, and swine, affected with contagious or infectious disease, which were imported into the port of Liverpool during the same period, and the number of healthy animals which were brought in the same vessels with the diseased animals, as follows:

American port from whence brought.	Disease.	Diseased animals.				Healthy animals brought in the same vessels with diseased animals.			
		Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Baltimore	Swine fever	.....	.....	12	12	.....	.....	73	73
Boston	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1	271	.....	.....	271
Do	Foot-and-mouth	1,028	.....	.....	1,028	1,113	.....	.....	1,113
Do	Sheep scab	.....	108	.....	108	.....	301	.....	301
Do	Swine fever	.....	.....	70	70	.....	.....	446	446
New York	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1	327	.....	.....	327
Do	Foot-and-mouth	4	.....	.....	4	28	.....	.....	28
Portland	do	321	.....	.....	321	69	.....	.....	69
Total	.....	1,350	108	82	1,540	1,808	301	519	2,623

I have the honor to transmit herewith a special report upon the cattle trade of Liverpool, together with the sanitary condition of the animals in Great Britian for the year 1880, compiled from the official report published by the veterinary department of the privy council at London.

STEPHEN B. PACKARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liverpool, October 26, 1881.

CATTLE TRADE OF LIVERPOOL WITH THE UNITED STATES DURING 1880.

According to the statement published in the annual report of the veterinary department of the privy council of Great Britain, there were imported from the United States of America into this port during the year, 63,136 cattle, 24,757 sheep, and 10,559 swine, exhibiting an increase of 23,467 cattle, but a decrease of 49,630 sheep and 3,448 swine compared with 1879.

The following table gives the number of those animals which on landing were found affected with contagious or infections disease, together

with the number of healthy animals which were brought in the same vessels w.th the diseased animals:

Ports from whence brought.	Disease.	Diseased animals.				Healthy animals brought in the same vessels with the diseased animals.			
		Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.	Cattle	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Baltimore	Pleuro-pneumonia	8	....	.....	8	1,174			1,174
Boston	do	108	....	.....	108	10,231	4,102	3,339	18,272
Do	Foot-and-mouth	21	51	.....	72				
Do	Sheep scab	.....	36	.....	36				
Do	Swine fever	.....	....	358	358				
New York	Pleuro-pneumonia	14	....	.....	14	1,356	2,430	98	3,884
Do	Foot-and-mouth	.....	12	.....	12				
Do	Swine fever	.....	....	4	4				
Portland	Pleuro-pneumonia	4	....	.....	4	647			647
Total		155	99	362	616	13,566	6,532	3,987	23,977

From the British report I have extracted the following interesting facts concerning the cattle trade and the sanitary condition of the live stock of the United Kingdom:

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN IN FOREIGN LIVE STOCK.

Restrictions on foreign animals were rather more severe in some respects than they were in 1879, yet the importation of live stock increased in comparison with the previous year. The total of imported animals from all countries out of the United Kingdom was 1,379,838 against 1,241,847 in 1879. From European countries there were received 180,877 cattle, 797,482 sheep, and 37,907 swine.

From Canada there were landed in 1880 at the ports of Bristol, Glasgow, Liverpool, London, and Southampton 211 cargoes of animals, consisting of 48,103 cattle, 78,074 sheep, 671 swine, in addition to which 813 cattle, 1,647 sheep, and 5 swine were thrown overboard during the voyage, 53 cattle and 100 sheep were landed dead, and 38 cattle and 110 sheep had to be slaughtered at the place of landing, owing to injuries received in transit.

From the United States there were landed in 1880 at the ports of Barrow-in-Furness, Bristol, Cardiff, Glasgow, Hartlepool, Hull, Liverpool, London, South Shields, and Southampton, 770 cargoes of animals, consisting of 154,814 cattle, 66,722 sheep, and 12,549 swine, in addition to which 6,831 cattle, 2,964 sheep, and 1,359 swine were thrown overboard on the voyage; 168 cattle, 108 sheep, and 111 swine were landed dead; and 104 cattle, 45 sheep, and 81 swine were so much injured that it was necessary to slaughter them at the place of landing.

TABLE No. 1.—*Showing the number of foreign cattle, sheep, and swine imported into Great Britain, and the countries from which received, during the year* 1880.

Countries from whence exported.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total animals.
Belgium	.....	11,140	1	11,141
Channel Islands	2,632	.....	.....	2,632
Denmark	64,788	94,882	9,462	169,132
France	1,572	511	.....	2,083
Germany (ex Schleswig-Holstein)	.....	327,760	16,916	344,676
Germany, Schleswig-Holstein	25,889	48,416	.....	74,305
Netherlands	38,795	307,119	8,563	354,477
Norway	1,031	2,754	.....	3,785
Portugal	14,736	94	2	14,832
Spain	23,450	65	2	23,517
Sweden	10,616	4,741	2,961	18,318
Canada	48,103	78,074	671	126,848
United States of America	154,814	66,722	12,549	234,085
Other countries	6	1	.....	7
Total	386,432	942,279	51,127	1,379,838

TABLE No. 2.—*Showing the number of foreign cattle, sheep, and swine imported into Great Britain, and the ports at which landed, during the year* 1880.

Ports at which landed.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total animals.
Barrow-in-Furness	1,860	929	947	3,736
Bristol	10,817	25,947	206	36,970
Cardiff	1,441	381	.....	1,822
Falmouth	4,704	2	2	4,708
Glasgow	23,984	9,930	551	34,465
Goole	5	298	.....	303
Granton	19	8,730	.....	8,749
Grimsby	403	4,641	.....	5,044
Hartlepool	725	27,332	375	28,432
Harwich	5,971	31,463	.....	37,434
Hull	11,215	35,103	1,854	48,172
Leith	2,027	1,653	.....	3,680
Liverpool	90,182	60,095	10,559	160,836
London	150,763	681,316	24,504	856,583
Middlesbrough	1,018	262	466	1,746
Newcastle-upon-Tyne	52,047	53,491	11,659	117,197
Plymouth	7,097	1	.....	7,098
Portsmouth	5,365	42	.....	5,407
Shields, South	2,044	394	.....	2,438
Southampton	13,719	234	2	13,955
Sunderland	618	35	2	655
Weymouth	408	.....	.....	408
Total	386,432	942,279	51,127	1,379,838

TABLE No. 3.—*Showing the number of cattle, sheep, and swine, imported into Great Britain from the United States, and the port at which landed during the year* 1880.

Ports at which landed.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total animals.
Barrow-in-Furness	1,860	929	947	3,736
Bristol	9,182	12,836	206	22,224
Cardiff	1,421	381	.....	1,802
Glasgow	9,080	1,536	222	10,838
Hartlepool	705	4,138	132	4,975
Hull	3,107	.....	.....	3,107
Liverpool	63,136	24,757	10,559	98,452
London	62,688	21,578	483	84,749
Shields-South	2,044	394	.....	2,438
Southampton	1,591	173	.....	1,764
Total	154,814	76,722	12,549	234,085

TABLE No. 4.—*Showing the number of cattle, sheep, and swine imported from the United States into Great Britain during the years* 1876, 1877, 1878, 1879 *and* 1880.

Year.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total animals.
1876	392	.....	.....	392
1877	11,588	13,120	226	24,884
1878	68,450	43,940	16,321	128,711
1879	76,117	119,350	15,180	210,647
1880	154,814	66,722	12,549	234,085

TABLE No. 5.—*Showing the number of cattle, sheep, and swine imported into the port of Liverpool during the years* 1876, 1877, 1878, 1879, *and* 1880.

Year.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total animals.
1876	6,736	17,466	12	24,214
1877	17,188	8,151	720	26,059
1878	56,319	55,555	14,380	126,254
1879	54,384	112,241	14,290	180,915
1880	90,182	60,095	10,559	160,836

From Table 1 it will be observed that the United States hold the third rank in respect to the number of animals imported into Great Britain. It is only since 1877, as shown in Table 4, that importations of American live stock have begun to take such a rapid and extended development.

From Table 2 it will be remarked that the port of Liverpool ranks now second in importance in regard to the importation of foreign live stock into Great Britain, and first as to importance of animals, as shown in Table 3, imported from the United States. Five years ago Liverpool ranked fifth only—after Harwich, Hull, London, and Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

The Table No. 5 will show the rapid increase of the number of live stock imported into this port during the last five years.

PROPORTION OF CARGOES OF FOREIGN ANIMALS IN WHICH DISEASE WAS DETECTED.

There were landed in Great Britain during 1880, from places out of the United Kingdom, exclusive of the Channel Islands, 3,392 cargoes of animals, consisting of 383,800 cattle, 942,279 sheep, and 51,127 swine. In 151 cargoes the inspectors detected disease among the animals on landing in this country. The diseased cargoes came from the following countries: Belgium, 38 cargoes, of which three cargoes, consisting of 582 sheep, contained 33 sheep affected with sheep-scab; Denmark, 525 cargoes, of which two cargoes, consisting of 343 cattle and 77 sheep, contained five sheep affected with sheep-scab; France, 42 cargoes, of which three cargoes, consisting of 174 cattle, contained 40 cattle affected with foot-and-mouth disease; Germany, 482 cargoes, of which 18 cargoes, consisting of 20,878 sheep and 701 swine, contained 5 sheep and 15 swine affected with foot-and-mouth disease, 3 sheep affected with sheep-pox, 248 sheep affected with sheep-scab, and 3 swine affected with swine fever; the Netherlands, 684 cargoes, of which 10 cargoes, consisting of 821 cattle, 5,143 sheep, and 354 swine, contained 2 cattle affected with pleuro-pneumonia, 2 sheep affected with foot-and-mouth disease, and 10 swine affected with swine-fever; Portugal, 93 cargoes, of which 1 cargo, consisting of 96 cattle, contained four cattle affected with foot-

and-mouth disease; Spain, 317 cargoes, of which 1 cargo, consisting of 52 cattle, contained 5 cattle affected with foot-and-mouth disease; Sweden, 140 cargoes, of which 1 cargo, consisting of 97 cattle, 4 sheep, and 22 swine, contained 3 sheep affected with sheep-scab; Canada, 211 cargoes, of which 2 cargoes, consisting of 108 cattle and 226 sheep, contained 5 sheep affected with sheep-scab.

The United States of America, 770 cargoes, of which 110 cargoes, consisting of 26,464 cattle, 12,931 sheep, and 5,013 swine, contained 229 cattle affected with pleuro-pneumonia, 21 cattle and 63 sheep affected with foot-and-mouth disease, 124 sheep affected with sheep-scab, and 403 swine affected with swine-fever.

The following table shows the number of foreign animals affected with any contagious or infectious disease which were imported into Great Britain during the year 1880; and the number of healthy animals which were brought in the same vessels with the diseased animals.

Foreign countries and ports from whence brought.		Ports to which brought.	Disease.	Diseased animals.				Healthy animals brought in same vessels with diseased animals.			
				Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Belgium	Antwerp	London	Sheep-scab	.....	33	.....	33	.....	549	.....	549
Denmark	Copenhagen	Hull	....do	.....	2	.....	2	13	55	.....	68
Do	Esbjerg	London	....do	.....	3	.....	3	330	17	.....	347
France	Boulogne	....do	Foot-and-mouth	8	.....	.....	8	78	.....	.....	78
Do	Havre	....do	....do	32	.....	.....	32	56	.....	.....	56
Germany (ex Schleswig-Holstein)	Bremen	....do	....do	.....	5	.....	5	.....	9,218	.....	9,218
Do	....do	....do	Sheep-scab	.....	171	.....	171				
Do	Geestemünde	....do	....do	.....	55	.....	55	.....	10,197	.....	10,197
Do	Hamburg	Goole	....do	.....	3	.....	3	.....	70	.....	70
Do	....do	Hull	....do	.....	5	.....	5	.....	195	89	284
Do	....do	....do	Swine fever	.....	.....	1	1				
Do	....do	London	Foot-and-mouth	.....	.....	15	15	.....	942	594	1,536
Do	....do	....do	Sheep-pox	.....	3	.....	3				
Do	....do	....do	Sheep-scab	.....	14	.....	14				
Do	....do	....do	Swine fever	.....	.....	2	2				
Netherlands	Amsterdam	....do	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1	274	509	.....	783
Do	Harlingen	Hull	Swine fever	.....	.....	2	2	46	37	60	143
Do	....do	London	Foot-and-mouth	.....	2	.....	2	105	1,545	136	1,786
Do	....do	....do	Swine fever	.....	.....	2	2				
Do	Rotterdam	....do	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1	394	3,050	148	3,592
Do	....do	....do	Swine fever	.....	.....	6	6				
Portugal	Oporto	Liverpool	Foot-and-mouth	4	.....	.....	4	92	.....	.....	92
Spain	Vigo	....do	....do	5	.....	.....	5	47	.....	.....	47
Sweden	Gottenberg	London	Sheep-scab	.....	3	.....	3	97	1	22	120
Canada	Halifax	Liverpool	....do	.....	3	.....	3	.....	108	.....	108
Do	Montreal	....do	....do	.....	2	.....	2	108	113	.....	221
United States of America	Baltimore	....do	Pleuro-pneumonia	8	.....	.....	8	1,174	.....	.....	1,174
Do	....do	London	....do	2	.....	.....	2	436	.....	.....	436
Do	Boston	Hull	....do	2	.....	.....	2	178	.....	.....	178
Do	....do	Liverpool	....do	108	.....	.....	108				
Do	....do	....do	Foot-and-mouth	21	51	.....	72	10,331	4,102	3,839	18,272
Do	....do	....do	Sheep-scab	.....	36	.....	36				
Do	....do	....do	Swine fever	.....	.....	358	358				
Do	....do	London	Pleuro-pneumonia	24	.....	.....	24	.....	2,654	2,367	5,021
Do	....do	....do	Sheep-scab	.....	17	.....	17				
Do	New York	Barrow-in-Furness	Swine fever	.....	.....	12	12	.....	321	328	649
Do	....do	Bristol	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1	.....	475	464	191	1,130
Do	....do	....do	Sheep-scab	.....	1	.....	1				
Do	....do	....do	Swine fever	.....	.....	15	15				
Do	....do	Hull	Pleuro-pneumonia	1	.....	.....	1	.....	70	.....	.....	70
Do	....do	Liverpool	....do	14	.....	.....	14	.....	1,356	2,430	98	3,884
Do	....do	....do	Foot-and-mouth	.....	12	.....	12				
Do	....do	....do	Swine fever	.....	.....	4	4				

Do	do	London	Pleuro-pneumonia	65			65	8,212	3,280	154	11,646
Do	do	do	Sheep-scab		50		50				
Do	do	do	Swine fever			14	14				
Do	Philadelphia	do	Sheep-scab		20		20	360	101		461
Do	Portland, Me	Liverpool	Pleuro-pneumonia	4			4	647			647
TOTALS.											
Pleuro-pneumonia				231			231				
Foot-and-mouth				70	70	15	155				
Sheep-pox					3		3				
Sheep-scab					418		418				
Swine fever						416	416				
Aggregate				301	491	431	1,228	27,854	29,350	5,659	72,863

SANITARY CONDITION OF STOCK IN GREAT BRITAIN DURING THE YEAR 1880.

Cattle plague.—During the year, no outbreak was reported to have occurred, and no cases were detected among animals from abroad by the inspectors of English ports.

Pleuro-pneumonia.—The disease existed in 51 counties, the number of outbreaks being 1,052 against 1,549 in 1879. The number of cattle attacked during the year was 2,765 against 4,414 in the previous year, at the end of which 6 remained diseased. During 1880, 2,681 cattle were slaughtered and 88 died.

In England, from the returns received, it appears that pluro-pneumonia existed in 37 counties, 967 fresh outbreaks occurred, 2,412 cattle were attacked, and 2 remained diseased from the previous year; 2,328 were killed and 84 died.

In Wales 1 outbreak of the disease was reported, and only 1 animal was attacked during the year.

In Scotland reports of the existence of the disease were received from 12 counties.

During the year 84 fresh outbreaks took place, 352 cattle were attacked, 348 were killed, and 4 died. The disease has decreased in 28 counties, and increased in 9 counties in England.

The counties in which there has been the most marked decrease are Cumberland, York (West Riding), Suffolk, Northampton, Essex, Kent, Lancaster, Derby, Norfolk, Surrey, and the metropolis.

In England the disease increased in Middlesex, York (North Riding), East Riding), Salop, Warwick, Bedford, Durham, Westmoreland, and Hert's.

In Scotland the greatest decrease was in the counties of Aberdeen and Edinburgh. In the former county the number of cattle attacked in 1880 was 31, as compared with 263 in 1879; and in Edinburgh the disease decreased from 185 in 1879 to 15 cases in 1880. In Scotland the disease has decreased in 15 counties, whilst 7 which were last year returned infected were this year free, and the only county in which any material increase occurred was Kincardine, where the number of animals attacked increased from 5 in 1879 to 22 in 1880.

Foot-and-mouth disease.—At the end of 1879 there remained three infected places in which foot-and-mouth disease existed, in the counties of Hants, Kent, and Oxford. Ninety-five animals had been attacked with the disease on the premises. The infected places were declared free on January 17, 1880, from foot-and-mouth disease, and no fresh outbreaks were reported until the week ending February 21, since which time the disease spread to a great extent.

According to the returns which have been received from inspectors of local authorities, the disease has existed in 38 counties in England, the chief of which are Suffolk, Norfolk, Essex, Sussex, Surrey, Cambridge, and the metropolis.

Sheep-pox.—This disease has not appeared in Great Britain during the year 1880, but a cargo of sheep were landed at Deptford, among which 3 animals were found affected with the disease. The whole of the carcases of these animals were destroyed.

Sheep-scab.—This disease was returned from 70 counties in Great Britain during 1880, viz. 41 in England, 10 in Wales, and 19 in Scotland. The number of the outbreaks was 1,556, while in 1879 it amounted to 2,229. The total number of the animals attacked was 26,173 in 1880, against 54,607 in 1879.

Swine fever.—The returns which have been received in reference to this disease show a very considerable diminution in the number of outbreaks, and of the number of animals attacked during the year 1880 compared with 1879. During 1880 the disease appeared in 42 counties in England, 3 in Scotland, 5 in Wales, making a total of 50 infected counties in Great Britain; 1,936 fresh outbreaks have been reported, 9,865 swine have been attacked, 7,961 killed on account of the disease, 23 recovered, while 1,811 swine which have been herded with diseased ones have been slaughtered. In addition to this, 1,940 swine have been reported to have died of the disease.

Glanders and farcy.—There were returned in Great Britain during 1880, 1,346 cases of glanders, and 764 cases of farcy; in 1879 only 906 cases of glanders and 461 of farcy were reported, being an increase of 440 cases of glanders and 303 cases of farcy. The returns from the metropolis show a marked increase in the number of cases of these diseases. Glanders had increased from 601 cases in 1879 to 1,142 in 1880, and farcy from 382 in 1879 to 671 cases in 1880. It is stated that there is abundant evidence to show that numbers of cases of these diseases are now returned which in past years were never reported; therefore that the apparent alarming increase of these diseases in the metropolis is not real. That many cases of these diseases occur throughout Great Britain without any notice being given of them, may reasonably be assumed from the evidence which the returns afford, for it will be found that of the 1,346 cases of glanders reported in Great Britain during the year 1880, only 204 were reported from parts of Great Britain other than London.

Compensation paid by local authorities in Great Britain for animals slaughtered during the year ending 31st December, 1880, amounted to $218,988.

Number of farms or other places in the counties of Great Britain upon which fresh outbreaks of pleuro-pneumonia were reported by the inspectors of the local authorities to have occurred during the year 1890, *with the number of cattle reported to have been killed, to have died, and to have recovered.*

Counties.	Number of counties reported from.	Farms or other places.			Healthy cattle on infected premises.		Cattle attacked.		Diseased cattle.			
		Number which were infected with the disease at the end of the previous year.	Number upon which fresh outbreaks took place during the year.	Total number infected during the year.	Slaughtered.	Removed.	Remained diseased from the previous year.	Attacked during the year.	Killed.	Died.	Removed.	Remaining.
Great Britain	51	131	1,052	1,183	725	664	6	2,765	2,681	88	....	1
England	37	114	967	1,081	568	434	2	2,412	2,328	84	....	1
Wales	2	1	1	2	4	.....	4	1	5	....	....	....
Scotland	12	16	84	100	153	230	.....	352	348	4	....	....
ENGLAND.												
Derby		7	17	24	12	1	.....	47	45	2	....	....
Essex		11	103	114	39	78	.....	232	221	11	....	....
Kent (ex metropolis)		7	48	55	42	7	.....	172	165	7	....	....
Lancaster		14	74	88	203	95	.....	242	238	3	....	1
Leicester		4	13	17	1	.....	.....	17	17	....	....	....
Middlesex (ex metropolis)		5	57	62	26	6	.....	192	192	....	....	....
Norfolk		9	69	78	20	10	.....	149	142	7	....	....
Notts		1	16	17	16	39	.....	56	56	....	....	....
Salop		1	12	13	.....	1	.....	28	25	3	....	....
Stafford		5	83	88	15	.....	.....	145	138	7	....	....
Suffolk		7	39	46	.....	8	.....	58	52	6	....	....
Surrey (ex metropolis)		1	16	17	44	.....	.....	55	52	3	....	....
York, East Riding		1	70	71	.....	18	.....	115	110	5	....	....
York, North Riding		6	57	63	10	24	.....	161	154	7	....	....
York, West Riding		9	116	125	19	32	1	201	192	10	....	....
The Metropolis		11	109	113	17	68	.....	384	380	4	....	....
Other counties in England		15	68	90	104	47	1	158	149	9	....	1
WALES.												
Two counties in Wales		1	1	2	4	.....	4	1	5	....	....	....
SCOTLAND.												
Fife		3	33	36	48	86	.....	61	61	....	....	....
Forfar		1	7	8	1	77	.....	57	57	....	....	....
Lanark		3	9	12	36	.....	.....	100	100	....	....	....
Renfrew		1	12	13	3	.....	.....	54	54	....	....	....
Other counties in Scotland		8	23	31	65	67	.....	80	76	4	....	....

Number of farms or other places in the counties of Great Britain upon which fresh outbreaks of foot-and-mouth disease was reported by the inspectors of the local authorities to have occurred during the year 1880, *with the number of animals reported to have been attacked, to have been killed, to have died, and to have recovered.*

Counties, etc.	Number of counties reported from.	Farms, or other places.			Animals remaining diseased from the previous year.	Animals attacked during the year.			
		Number which were infected with the disease at the end of the previous year.	Number upon which fresh outbreaks took place during the year.	Total number infected with the disease during the year.		Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.
Great Britain	38	3	1,461	1,464	95	20,918	9,572	1,886	32,376
England	38	3	1,461	1,464	95	20,918	9,572	1,886	32,376
Wales									
Scotland									
ENGLAND.									
Bedford			14	14		303	71	12	386
Berks			10	10		45	356		401
Cambridge (ex liberty of Isle of Ely).			38	38		538	780	26	1,344
Derby			24	24		316		1	317
Devon			19	19		106	591	24	721
Essex			188	188		2,568	402	254	3,224
Hants		1	12	13	24	120	379		499
Hertford			17	17		179		131	310
Huntingdon			40	40		340		8	348
Kent (ex metropolis)		1	47	48	2	569		14	583
Lincoln (Linsey)			17	17		313		72	385
Middlesex (ex metropolis)			28	28		401		152	553
Norfolk			520	520		8,953	4,451	407	13,811
Northampton (ex soke of Peterbrough).			36	36		432	60	4	496
Notts			17	17		240		13	253
Salop			5	5		147		10	157
Suffolk			200	206		2,462	2,121	365	4,948
Surrey (ex metropolis)			37	37		393	361	223	977
Sussex			47	47		474		4	478
Warwick			7	7		186			186
York (West Riding)			17	17		174		38	212
The Metropolis			51	51		872		100	972
Liberty of the Isle of Ely			24	24		265			265
Other counties in England		1	46	47	69	522		28	550

Number of farms or other places in the counties of Great Britain upon which fresh outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease was reported, &c.—Continued.

Counties, &c.	Diseased animals.									
	Killed.				Died.				Recovered.	Remaining.
	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total.		
Great Britain	465	5	10	480	83	18	100	201	13, 209	18, 583
England	465	5	10	480	83	18	100	301	13, 209	18, 583
Wales	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Scotland	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
ENGLAND.										
Bedford	1	1	.....	2	2	.....	.....	2	301	87
Berks	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	310	90
Cambridge (ex liberty of Isle of Ely).	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	3	4	131	1, 269
Derby	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	130	186
Devon	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	199	521
Essex	16	3	.....	19	13	1	10	24	1, 679	1, 502
Hants	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	5	.....	6	419	98
Hertford	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	2	234	74
Huntingdon	1	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	1	67	270
Kent (ex metropolis)	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	.....	.....	5	127	453
Lincoln (Linsey)	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	.....	.....	4	98	283
Middlesex (ex metropolis)	3	.....	.....	3	9	.....	.....	9	446	95
Norfolk	3	.....	3	6	19	1	19	39	5, 161	8, 605
Northampton (ex soke of Peterbrough).	.....	.....	3	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	154	339
Notts	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	46	206
Salop	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	137
Suffolk	27	1	3	31	12	1	42	55	2, 168	2, 695
Surrey (ex Metropolis)	1	.....	.....	1	6	10	4	20	536	421
Sussex	3	.....	.....	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	6	469
Warwick	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	185	.....
York (West Riding)	5	.....	1	6	2	.....	20	22	142	42
The metropolis	404	.....	.....	404	.....	.....	.....	.....	325	243
Liberty of the Isle of Ely	1	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	1	103	160
Other counties in England	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	2	242	375

Number of farms or other places in the counties of Great Britain upon which fresh outbreaks of swine fever was reported by the inspectors of the local authorities to have occurred during the year 1880, *with the number of animals reported to have been attacked, to have been killed, to have died, and to have recovered.*

Counties &c.	Number of counties reported from.	Farms or other places.			Healthy swine on infected premises.		Swine attacked.		Diseased swine.			
		Number which were infected with the disease at the end of the year.	Number upon which fresh outbreaks took place during the year.	Total number infected with the disease during the year.	Slaughtered.	Removed.	Remaining diseased from the previous year.	Attacked during the previous year.	Killed.	Died.	Recovered.	Remaining.
Great Brittain ...	50	36	1,936	1,972	1,811	99	99	9,865	7,961	1,940	23	40
England	42	35	1,884	1,919	1,801	64	94	9,670	7,826	1,881	21	36
Wales	5	.....	29	29	1	2	.....	86	63	19	....	4
Scotland	3	1	23	24	9	33	5	109	72	40	2	....
ENGLAND.												
Berks		1	30	31	10	.....	28	240	188	80	....	....
Buckingham		2	31	33	119	.....	35	208	213	30	....	....
Chester		.....	35	35	1	.....	.....	89	47	42	....	....
Derby		.....	51	51	20	.....	.....	125	97	28	....	....
Devon		.....	75	75	3	.....	.....	340	295	43	....	2
Essex		7	66	73	44	.....	.....	631	498	133	....	....
Gloucester		.....	67	67	201	.....	.....	335	249	85	1	....
Hants		2	94	96	124	13	9	453	316	131	....	15
Huntingdon		2	36	38	8	.....	.....	263	228	35	....	....
Kent (ex metropolis) ...		.....	42	42	103	6	.....	458	355	103	....	....
Lancaster		3	83	86	132	.....	.....	193	136	55	2	....
Northampton (ex Soke of Peterborough.)		2	36	38	8	.....	.....	191	143	34	....	14
Notts		1	81	82	25	2	2	152	111	43	....	....
Somerset		1	81	82	45	4	2	589	459	125	7	....
Stafford		.....	111	111	52	.....	.....	352	297	52	1	2
Sussex		2	45	47	131	1	.....	292	238	54	....	....
Warwick		.....	89	89	76	13	.....	394	314	78	2	....
Wilts		.....	58	58	197	12	.....	455	405	48	....	2
Yorks, East Riding ...		2	169	171	67	.....	.....	899	761	137	....	1
Yorks, North Riding ..		.....	47	47	4	.....	.....	218	190	28	....	....
Yorks, West Riding ...		.....	202	202	73	9	.....	464	368	96	....	....
Norfolk		7	80	87	47	.....	13	603	511	103	2	....
Other counties in England.		3	275	278	311	4	5	1,726	1,407	318	6	....

Number of farms or other places in the counties of Great Britain upon which fresh outbreaks of sheep scab were reported by the inspectors of the local authorities to have occurred during the year 1880, and the number of sheep reported to have been attacked by the disease.

Counties, &c.	Number of counties reported from.	Number of farms or other places upon which fresh outbreaks took place.	Sheep attacked.
Great Britain	70	1,556	26,173
England	41	982	19,603
Wales	10	456	4,791
Scotland	19	118	1,779
ENGLAND.			
Bedford		10	427
Buckingham		9	474
Chester		65	739
Cornwall		19	436
Cumberland		128	524
Derby		51	416
Devon		54	1,067
Durham		40	479
Essex		11	347
Hants		1	295
Hereford		23	421
Hertford		5	111
Huntington		3	126
Kent		13	571
Lancaster		49	214
Leicester		40	1,216
Lincoln		34	1,543
Middlesex		2	181
Monmouth		105	2,422
Norfolk		12	1,160
Northampton, (ex Soke of Peterborough)		19	723
Notts		9	198
Salop		34	248
Somerset		26	540
Sussex		6	261
Warwick		7	189
Westmorland		39	154
Worcester		2	539
Yorks, East Riding		27	1,438
Yorks, North Riding		45	468
Yorks, West Riding		57	1,094
Liberty of Isle of Ely		5	185
Soke of Peterborough		2	102
Other counties		30	295
WALES.			
Brecon		41	329
Denbigh		135	1,268
Flint		47	859
Glamorgan		46	423
Merioneth		80	919
Montgomery		89	769
Other counties		18	224
SCOTLAND.			
Aberdeen		7	236
Argyll		7	144
Ayr		19	231
Dumbarton		2	117
Fife		8	269
Perth		13	114
Stirling		9	116
Wigtown		8	128
Other counties		45	474

MANUFACTURE OF SWEET BUTTER IN DENMARK.

REPORT BY CONSUL RYDER, OF COPENHAGEN.

In this manufacture the treatment of the milk is conducted with the object of producing the finest possible quality of sweet churned butter with a good scum-milk cheese. For this a very energetic ice-cooling is employed, involving considerable consumption of ice.

In some of the dairies, for instance at Ouroe, a very large amount of milk is handled. During the week from July 12 to 18 there were not less than 55,272 pounds, and of this quantity 30,624 pounds were from the farms' own stock, 9,586 pounds came from the neighboring farms, and 15,062 pounds were from purchased and driven milk from the peasant farms. There was produced during the week 1,512 pounds of sweet butter and 202 pounds sour, after scummings butter from 53,425 pounds of sieved milk; that is to say, a consumption of 31.17 pounds of milk to

one pound of butter, a somewhat larger consumption than the normal, owing to the extreme dryness of the grass. From 35.35 pounds milk was thus obtained one pound of sweet butter, in addition to the after-scummed butter.

It is a principle to retain at least one-half per cent. fatty substance in the scummed milk, so that the quality of the cheese may not be poor. Just as the fatness of the milk is continually controlled by Professor Fjord's controlling centifuge, more especially the milk purchased from the peasant farms examined by this method, so it may be set down as certain that there is retained in the scummed milk the desired amount of fat, and that, practically, in exact quantities.

As required by the Scandinavian Preserved Butter Company, of Copenhagen, who procure the butter for hermetic packing, the cream is scummed for sweet butter after a strong ice-cooling of ten hours. In point of fact, it is nearer nine than ten hours after the sieving that the scumming takes place. When, for example, it is calculated that the milk is sieved at 7 to 7½ o'clock in the evening, it is then generally scummed about 4½ o'clock next morning. Previous to the sieving the cooling basins are filled with broken ice with as little water as possible in the filling. In this thick ice almost all the cooling pans are pressed down with considerable force (chiefly of oval shape, with about 70 pounds milk in each); these pans are supplied with broad iron hoops at the bottom. I have measured 24° R. in the milk at the time of sieving; 45 minutes later 16° R., and again, after a lapse of 30 minutes, 10° R.; at scumming time next morning 1½ to 2° R. It is well known that only the top part of the cream is used in the fabrication of sweet butter, and after this scumming an after-scumming immediately takes place.

After this first scumming the milk is placed in pans on the floor until the scummed milk is filled in the cheese tub, the morning's milk about twenty-four hours, the evening's milk about thirty six hours old, and after two to three relative after-scummings.

The churning of sweet butter takes place from three to five o'clock in the morning at three intervals. The cream is warmed to 9° R. (being placed in tin safes in warm water), and which is the temperature at the commencement of churning.

In the regulation of the temperature there is, however, much to be observed from the experience of the dairy superintendent. In winter a somewhat higher temperature (about 10° R.) will be required; also the feeding of the cows on old grass will call for a slightly higher temperature than when fed on the new grass, and in winter, for example, the difference in the foddering of beans and tares will exercise an influence in the same manner, and an increasing quantity of this description of fodder, called by the dairy people tough fodder, will call for a higher churning temperature. The churning is completed in 27 to 30 minutes, and the increase of temperature during the churning is about 3° (to 12° R.) No water is used in churning, and the butter is rinsed solely with scummed milk. In churning sweet butter the butter formation takes place in very fine balls (like pin-heads), and the churning is stopped at that stage. The butter is quickly taken up with a sieve without being first collected separately, and only permitting the buttermilk to be carried off.

The dimensions of the churn exercise, as is well known, considerable importance in the churning of sweet butter. In the case above-mentioned it has 38 inches diameter in the bottom, 26½ inches at the lid, and has a side height of 41½ inches. The churn-whip is an open frame, of which the lower cross-piece is about 1 inch from the bottom, having its side

pieces about 6 inches from the lower side and 3 inches from the top. The height of the frame is 32 inches, so that the uppermost bar is about 8 inches from the churn's lid. The bars are wood lists of two inches in breadth above, 3 inches below, and 1 inch thick. There are three perpendicular bars on the sides of the churn. About 390 pounds of cream are worked at the same time in this churn, and from 4 to 4½ pounds cream yield 1 pound of butter (208 to 212 pounds in three churnings). The rapidity of the churn is about 140 revolutions per minute. In the churn 2½ drams of butter coloring is used to 100 pounds of cream. On removal from the churn the buttermilk is immediately pressed out of the butter in pieces of about 1 pound. It is pressed with crossed hands against the sides of the butter tubs. The flat-pressed pieces are then laid together, again pressed flat, and the process repeated about ten times in this manner. The flat-pressed small pieces are weighed and then put in layers with salt (3 drams per 1 pound butter) in the tub. The butter is then cut down with the hands perpendicularly, and receives in five-pound pieces a similar kneading as in the first instance, against the bottom of the tub (each piece about ten times). The flat 5-pound pieces are finally rolled lightly together in long, open rolls, and are laid lightly upon the lower bars of the cooling-box. The lid of this latter is covered with a thick layer of ice, and here the butter is left to cool for about one and one-half hours. The dairy chief states that he does not make use of machinery in this second kneading, as the buttermilk is removed more satisfactorily by hand working.

From the cooling-box (here there is one for every churning of about fifteen pieces of 5-pound rolls) the butter is taken out at a temperature of about 9° R. in a consistent state. It is then worked by machinery in the usual way, without any fixed number of revolutions, according to the judgment of the dairy hand. Straight from the machine, the butter is then laid down in the cask and pressed tight by hand.

It follows of itself that in this process a great amount of care on all points is requisite in order to prevent the butter from being spotted—too little kneading or too much overworked. In this respect it has to depend upon the ability and experience of the dairy manager. One must know how to select the proper medium between too little and too much working, measure the correct time between the second and third kneading, and so forth; and these several distinctions call for different modes of procedure, according to the time of the year (the temperature). The foddering exerts a similar influence upon the consistency of the butter. As a rule, it would appear that the butter thus manufactured is rated as first class, in the judgment of the consignees, and it is only an exception when a cask is placed in the second class. In the months of June and July there were 122 firkins in the first class and only 1 firkin in the second class. The principal requisites for this, namely, the fodder, proper care of the cattle, &c., will be treated on another occasion with more especial remarks, and are, as a matter of course, attended to at this dairy with extreme care. All other provisions in dairy thrift, as regards extreme cleanliness and attention to all details, are also watched in the most careful manner, where it is known from experience that any deviation in one or another way will be immediately observed and made known by the decision of the judges in Copenhagen. The decision of these judges is held in great respect, for their penetration has so often detected small faults and digressions from the normal proceedings that it exerts an exceedingly stimulating influence upon the dairy work-people.

For a dairy with so large an amount of milk as the one in question, the ingenuity of our dairymen in the inner workings of dairies, and our labor-saving inventions might be imitated advantageously. At this dairy are kept in addition to thirteen dairymaids, three female and one male apprentice, which four latter are kept steadily at work in the dairy from 2½ o'clock in the morning like the dairymaids outside of milking time, and it is only by careful method in the division of time, means, and labor, that matters are arranged so as to give the desired results in manufacture as hereinabove described.

HENRY B. RYDER,
United States Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, August 15, 1881.

EXHIBITION OF DAIRY PRODUCE AT COPENHAGEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL RYDER, OF COPENHAGEN.

The meeting of the Jutland Agricultural Society's Exhibition of dairy produce has been of especial interest on account of the uniformly high standard of the quality of its butter. This good result is shown not only with the large farms, from whence there came an exhibit of extremely fine quality, but also with the small dairies of under twenty cows. There were sixty of these small dairies represented at the exhibition, and the butter was fully equal in quality to that of the large producing farms. It is worthy of notice to remark that while there were only three exhibitors of sweet butter from the large dairies, there were fifteen (eleven of which obtained premiums) from the small farms, chiefly purveyors to the packing establishments whose butter was of excellent quality throughout. In the division for fresh, or mild-salted cream soured butter, packed in rolls of two pounds for the English market, there were found six marks, one of which, that took the first premium, was from a dairy that has been long noted for sending butter of the same quality to England.

The fact of the exhibit of cheese having been so small was due largely to the lack of stock of summer cheese in keeping, and also to the rumor that autumn and winter cheeses were not to be exhibited. Still there were not so many exceptions to the exhibits of cheese for the autumn months. The qualities varied greatly, but some, obtaining prizes, were of a very high standard, notwithstanding that the amount of milk used for a pound of butter was not large (28 to 29 pounds). The cheeses receiving premiums were of autumn make, and this shows that a good article can be produced from autumn milk. The production of butter seems to occupy attention to a degree that largely excludes an advance movement in the manufacture of cheese.

The chief impression gathered from this exhibition is the unanimity and energy shown by the agriculturists and merchants of this country in advancing the dairy question. From this position here there is certainly much for our dairy people to copy. United work and counsel between the producers and merchants who are acquainted with the business must be a sure means of advancing the quality of dairy produce at home.

The handsome and practical arrangement of the catalogue over the

many illustrations of the different products is specially deserving of notice. Twenty questions were set forth for answers, and although some of these were not quite complete, still there is given in this catalogue a mass of information of the greatest interest and value, which will not be the least useful result from the exhibition. In addition to the exhibition of the dairy committee, there were shown twenty-four implements of which the different makes of machines, churns, &c., are very deserving of notice. That which principally attracted attention, however, was the exhibit in full activity of three centrifuges, namely Lehfeldt's latest, and Nielsen and Petersen's separator. Notwithstanding the difficulties with which this latter exhibit was beset, and which arose chiefly from the severe frost, still these machines were shown in remarkably good working order. Professor Fjord's and Segelske's lectures were listened to with interest by the meeting. Professor Segelske lectured the first day on the exhibition and on cream souring.

The lecturer called attention to the probability that these large butter exhibitions would soon be discontinued. The reason for this is not that they have been of no use; they have, on the contrary, contributed to demonstrate that fine butter can be produced the whole year round; for fifteen years ago, it was not known that fine butter could be made during winter with a fodder of rape cakes and wheat bran. The exhibitions also tend to promote intercourse between producers and buyers. But dairy-thrift having emerged from childhood, these exhibitions cannot teach it any more. That which is required are improving schools; and such the exhibition might be regarded in part, for it has given the opportunity of formulating twenty-five queries to be answered by the butter producers, and twenty queries to be answered by the cheese exhibitors, as to the mode of production and manufacture. From the answers to these questions a great deal of information can be obtained. The lecturer is of the opinion that the judgment of an exhibition can now be replaced by the judgment of the merchant, and that the lectures on dairy-thrift held at the agricultural colleges are of more service than discourses at exhibitions. Still further, more should be written on the subject of dairy-thrift, more experiments similar to those of Professor Fjord's must be made, and exhibitions should be replaced by dairy meetings similar to those held in the United States. The lecturer anticipates that in the course of two or three years dairy congresses will be held with discussions lasting two and three days.

On setting of cream to sour, the lecturer stated that in the manufacture of sweet butter it is known that the souring is neither requisite for the make of butter nor for the purpose of keeping the butter in better state of preservation. The laying over to sour, on the other hand, gives an aroma to the butter. The lecturer compared the souring to the fermentation in beer. He set forth the importance of using good souring material, and that every month one should provide fresh sour butter by putting aside sweet milk for souring without other mixture. He then laid weight on the necessity of a proper cleansing of the cream tubs, namely, by scalding the small tubs with boiling water; the larger ones with burning bricks or with steam. For the larger dairies he does not at present recommend the use of tin cream-pans, but they might be used with advantage in the smaller ones. The cream-pan should stand in fresh air, best in the milk cellar, and can be placed on a stool and surrounded by hay mattresses; the small pans should be placed in a hay box, so as to retain the heat. The proprietor should see that by means of careful feeding, good air in the milk chamber, skimming at the proper time, &c., the contents of the cream tub be faultless. The dairy-maid

must see that the souring stuff is good, for by this means some amends may be made for inferior cream. When the cream is of inferior quality, care must be taken not to sour to extremes, and for that reason many have gone back to churning of sweet butter. Professor Fjord then held a discourse on centrifuges. The lecturer gave, in his usual comprehensive manner, a description of the centrifuge's working, and showed the manner in which public favor had gone over from the pail centrifuge to the cylinder form and subsequently to the self-scumming and constant centrifuge. He demonstrated, with the help of tables, the results obtained from his comparative experiments between the centrifuge and the ice and tub systems, showing the importance of the centrifuge in connection with heavy milk. From these experiments recently carried out with Lehfeldt's self-scumming centrifuge, with reference to the relative influence of the flowing milk quantity and the centrifuge's speed on the product of butter, the lecturer communicated the following results:

a. When the milk amount, handled at one and the same time, was increased one-third, the product of butter was diminished by 0.5 per cent.

b. When the speed was diminished one-eighth, whilst the milk amount remained unaltered, then the butter yield was diminished by about 0.5 per cent.

It is therefore shown that in both cases the yield was reduced with the centrifuge for normal milk to about the same as from experiments which have been arrived at with ice-cooling during thirty-four hours.

Of special interest was the description of several new experiments made at the Roswang and Ouroe dairies with regard to the treatment of heavy milk. Whilst it was shown by these experiments that the centrifuge with new-bearing cows' milk can obtain the largest yield of butter, such is not the case when the milk from older milking cows is heavy. In that case churning of the milk gives the largest yield. The results controlled by analyses of the scummed milk from the centrifuge and of the buttermilk from the churning, are given in the following table:

NIELSEN AND PETERSEN'S CENTRIFUGE.

[Ice, tubs, and churning of milk. Pound of milk to pound of butter.]

Comparative table of the yield of butter.

	Centrifuge.	Ice thirty-four hours.	Tubs thirty-four hours.	Milk churned.	Centrifuge.	Ice thirty-four hours.	Tubs thirty-four hours.	Milk churned.
1880.								
a. Older milking cows, November and December,								
Ouroe farm	28.6	56.4	33.8	27.4	100	50.7	84.6	104.2
Roswang farm	25.4	41.1	29.2	24.8	.....	100	61.9	102.5
1881.								
b. New milking cows, Ouroe farm, in January	26.1	28.6	27.6	27.4	100	91.3	94.6	95.3

With regard to the motive power of the centrifuge, the lecturer observed that further experiments were necessary, to be in a position to decide whether horse-power can be advantageously used; especially if a regular and easy motion can be obtained therewith. The small Roskild centrifuge can be drawn by one horse or ox, or by two men. The small Lavals centrifuge is drawn with difficulty by one horse; easily with two.

Wherever a good ice or tub dairy is established, the lecturer would not for the present recommend the supply of the centrifuge for the working of normal milk. On the other hand the centrifuge will decidedly be of advantage in ordinary dairies having normal milk, and in the union dairies which make use of heavy (driven) milk. In the union dairies experiments have proved that this has given 14 to 16 per cent. larger yield than with ice. Whether the centrifuge is injurious to the quality of the butter must be left to the verdict of the merchants; but so far as the lecturer has been able to learn, there have been no traces of any detriment. The difficulties in cheese fabrication from the scummed milk of the centrifuge, which in the beginning was apparent, would now appear to have been remedied. As a natural consequence, the cheese will be of poor quality when only one-quarter per cent. fatty matter is left in the milk. For the cooling of centrifuged cream ice will be required. Of the durability of the centrifuge, a sound judgment can only be arrived at in the course of eight or ten years.

HENRY B. RYDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, 1881.

THE CROPS AND BREAD SUPPLY OF SWITZERLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON, OF BASLE.

THE WHEAT CROP AND BREAD SUPPLY.

There are in Switzerland no complete official statistics of the annual crops of wheat and other cereals, but trustworthy agricultural authorities have made careful estimates and comparisons from which some approximate and interesting results may be deduced.

During the period from 1868 to 1880 the average annual home crop of wheat was about 4,100,000 centals. During this same period the average yearly import of wheat, flour, rye, and other bread materials was 5,500,000 centals.

The entire annual consumption during that period was therefore about 9,600,000 centals, exclusive of the small amount of rye and barley raised at home and used in the manufacture of bread. The population of Switzerland is 2,750,000, a large majority of whom consume comparatively little meat and but few vegetables; so that it is hardly surprising to find the yearly bread consumption of the entire people estimated as high as 306 pounds per capita. This estimate would seem to be somewhat in excess of the fact, since the total 9,600,000 centals of breadstuffs annually consumed includes the large amount eaten by the throng of tourists and visitors who from June until October inhabit the numerous summer resorts of this country.

The essential fact, however, from the American point of view, is that while Switzerland consumes 9,900,000 centals of breadstuffs, it raises from its own soil only two-fifths of that amount, leaving the remainder to be imported, mainly from the United States, Russia, and Austro-Hungary.

During the past three years European harvests have been generally unfavorable, and during part of this time the exigencies of war and home demand have to some extent checked the supply from Russia; so that

the proportion of the entire breadstuff import which has been drawn from the United States has steadily increased.

At the same time the area of wheat culture in Switzerland has rapidly decreased. The uncertainty of the grain yield, and the necessity of securing the utmost annual return from the limited productive area of this country, have constrained a constantly increasing percentage of Swiss farmers to abandon wheat-growing for the more certain and profitable pursuits of dairying and stock-raising. Lands that were uniformly devoted to wheat and rye culture, until railroads facilitated the importation of cheaper American breadstuffs, are now devoted wholly to grazing, fodder crops, potatoes, and the vine.

Meanwhile the use of rye and barley as bread material has rapidly diminished. Laboring people who had eaten black coarse bread on account of its greater cheapness, now find white wheat flour more economical than rye, although it can hardly be said that the white bread is preferred on any other ground than that of economy to the dark loaves to which they had previously been accustomed.

CONCLUSIONS.

1. The wheat crop of Switzerland for 1881 is of excellent quality, and, in proportion to the area harvested, shows some increase over the yield of 1880. But as the wheat area is, for the reasons above stated, rapidly diminishing, the yield of the present season will not exceed, if it equals, the average annual supply of 4,100,000 centals.

2. There will be, therefore, an import demand for about 5,800,000 centals, of which the United States will have an opportunity to supply their usual large proportion, although the more favorable harvests in other European countries this year will enable some of them to offer somewhat more serious competition.

3. It would seem apparent that a systematic and vigorous effort on the part of American wheat and flour exporters to introduce into Switzerland the coarser, darker, and cheaper grade of breadstuffs might develop satisfactory results. The Swiss people, in general, do not prefer white and high grades of flour, but they do insist that their bread shall be wholesome, nutritious, and cheap.

1. THE GRASS CROP OF 1881.

From the 20th of June until the 10th of August Switzerland was visited by drought accompanied by intense heat. As most of the arable soil in this country is of a loose and gravelly character, the protracted lack of rain inflicted serious injury upon the second crop of grass, which is usually gathered during the latter part of August. The practice of pasturing cattle in open fields is almost unknown in the valleys of Switzerland during the spring and summer months. In the high and rugged Alp pastures the cattle are allowed to graze, but in the lowlands the practice of mowing the grass and feeding the animals in stables throughout the summer is practically universal by reason of its greater economy, since cattle in grazing trample and waste nearly as much grass as they consume.

The first cutting of grass this year was unusually heavy, and of excellent quality. The second cutting has failed almost entirely, the meadows throughout the greater part of Switzerland remaining brown and barren from early in July until about the middle of August, when copious rains began and have continued until the present time. The

grass has revived rapidly since the return of moisture, but the second cutting has been lost and cannot be recovered. The prospects for the last, or September, crop are favorable, but in consequence of the loss of the second cutting the farmers in many cantons—notably the more southerly ones—will be obliged to reduce by at least one-third their stock of cattle before the setting in of winter. It is expected that beef will be thereby temporarily cheapened, and the demand for imported meats restricted. Swiss cheese, of the varieties usually exported, is manufactured largely on the higher hill and mountain pastures, where the drought was less severe; so that the supply and prices of that product have been not seriously disturbed.

2. THE WINE CROP.

Until the 1st of August the dry, hot weather was most favorable for the vineyards. The most famous wine seasons of the past century have been marked by the appearance of comets and prolonged, intense heat, and the recurrence of these conditions this year raised unusual expectations among wine growers. But during the early days of August it was found that the grapes, although phenomenally mature and advanced for that date, were beginning to suffer, in exposed situations, from the drought. They began to show a shriveled appearance, and in some cases fell from the vines. The returning rains and cooler weather, while they checked the ripening, restored the vitality of the vines and revived the fruit. The quality of the wine crop in Switzerland depends largely upon the amount of sunshine during September, after the grapes are fully formed and grown, and the present prospect is that, although the yield of 1881 will not be quite as large as was hoped for in June and July, it will be somewhat above the average in quantity and of excellent quality. For two seasons past the vineyards of this country have been almost totally unproductive. A good harvest this year is absolutely essential to save the vine-growing population from general penury and distress.

FRANK H. MASON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Basle, September 1, 1881.

OSTRICH FARMING—WHY MAY IT NOT BE PROSECUTED IN THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL BAKER, OF BUENOS AYRES.

Why cannot the ostrich be domiciled and domesticated in North America? What is there in our climate or vegetation, or in the habits of the bird, to prevent it being transplanted from its present home in the uplands of South Africa, or the "pampas" of the Argentine Republic, to a more genial and hospitable home in the United States?

I have somewhat investigated this problem, and I believe not only that it is feasible but that it would pay well, in a commercial point of view.

Ostrich farming is now an established branch of business at Cape Town, and during the last year it has been attempted here in the Argentine Republic with the most promising results; and knowing as I do

the readiness and wit with which the people of the United States appropriate, naturalize, and make the most of new industries, it has occurred to me that it would be a matter of general public interest for me to call attention to the ease with which the breeding of the ostrich could be introduced into our country, and the immense profits which its successful prosecution would produce to those who embark in it.

COMMERCIAL VALUE OF THE OSTRICH.

The commercial value of the ostrich consists in the feathers which it produces. Its flesh is eaten and even relished by the Indians of the Argentine Republic, but it is too coarse and strong to suit the tastes of civilized peoples. Up to a very recent period the only way in which the feathers were procured was by capturing and killing the wild bird. This indiscriminate destruction, in season and out of season, has been going on since time immemorial, until indeed the species (*Struthio camelus*), native of South Africa and Arabia, has in the wild state become almost exterminated in the former, and is now entirely extinct in the latter country; while the "bolas" of the Indians and the rifle of the "gaucho" have created such havoc among the birds (*Rhea Americana*), native of the Argentine "pampas," that it is now impossible to find them in any quantities except on the extreme western and southern frontiers.

The African ostrich is altogether the most valuable bird. It stands from 7 to 8 feet high from the top of its head to the ground, its head, neck, and legs being quite bare of feathers. The feathers of the body are blackish, while those of the wings and tail are white, sometimes marked with black. The Argentine ostrich is only from 4 to 5 feet high; and its plumage, which is gray or grayish black, sometimes tipped with white, is only valuable for the manufacture of feathers, brooms, and dusters.*

The only hope for the preservation of these species—indeed for preventing their extinction—is in the domestication of the birds, and their propagation on ostrich farms; and there is every reason to believe that this can be done as well in the United States as at Cape Town, or on the *estancias* of Buenos Ayres. If so, it signifies considerable in a commercial point of view to the people of the United States. I have no means at this moment of stating the value of the annual yield of ostrich feathers throughout the world. A reference, however, to the "Report on the Commercial Relations of the United States with Foreign Countries," for 1879, furnishes some statistics on the subject. It appears that the following was the value of the quantity exported from the places named, to wit:

* Of the ostrich family there are really four branches: the African ostrich, the Argentine ostrich, the emu, and the cassowary, the former differing from the other three in having but two toes, while the others have three. The first two are the only ones that produce feathers of any marketable value. They all differ from other birds in having only rudimentary wings, unadapted for flight, besides which the barbs of the feathers are of equal length on each side of the quill; while the breast is rounded like a barrel, instead of being like a keel as in birds of flight. There is still another species of ostrich, found only in Southern Patagonia, below latitude 48°. The "gauchos" call it the "Avestruz petise," and it is known to naturalists as the "*Struthio darwinii*." It is somewhat smaller than the *Rhea*, with shorter legs, and dark mottled feathers.—"*Naturalist's Voyage around the World*," by Darwin, pages 92 and 93.

Annual yield of feathers.

Place.	Year.	Value.
Tripoli, Barbary	1877	$820,000
Do	1878	920,307
Do	1879	997,457
Tangier, Morocco	1878	97,500
Port Natal, Natal Colony	1879	9,410
Cape Town,* Cape Colony	1879	4,415,160
Cairo, Egypt	1879	172,370
Buenos Ayres, Argentine Republic	1877	105,978
Do	1878	105,342

Of course these figures are merely approximate, but they will help to show the extent of the trade in the feathers of the ostrich. A large proportion of the above exports went to England, but no inconsiderable part found a market in the United States, either directly or indirectly.

DOMESTICATION OF THE BIRD.

It must not be supposed that the feathers embraced in the above statistics were exclusively taken from the wild bird. On the contrary, the greater part was the product of chicks reared in a tame state. It is now about fourteen years since the industry known as ostrich farming was first commenced in Cape Colony. Thus far, in spite of continual drought, scarcity of grain and other drawbacks, it has proved most successful; and I can see no reason, judging from the progress which, since it was attempted in the Argentine Republic, it has been making here, why it would not yield even greater profit in the United States, where the climate is equally suitable, the pasturage immensely superior, and all kinds of grain very many times cheaper. So far as climate, however, is concerned, the ostrich will thrive in the greatest extremes of heat and cold. The coast districts of Cape Colony, where snow is seldom seen and the winters are mild and of short duration, suit them equally well as the lofty table-lands of Fraserburg, 6,000 feet above the level of the sea, where the winter is bitterly cold and snow often covers the ground to the depth of several inches. So also they are as much at home in the fearfully cold and desolate regions of Southern Patagonia as on the grassy "pampas" of the Argentine Republic, where snow never falls and the mercury seldom sinks to freezing point. It is true we have been accustomed to regard the African ostrich as, by natural inclination, a denizen of the desert, but it is not at all clear that it was so foolish as to have taken up its abode in the regions of eternal sand from choice. Indeed, from what we know of its tastes and the readiness with which it can be domesticated, it is more probable that, other things being equal, it would prefer to locate itself among the soft, succulent grasses of the more moist districts; but in the wild state the ostrich has many enemies besides man, such as the lion, the tiger, the jackal, &c., and so the poor ostrich has had to occupy the desert for safety. The fact that it has been introduced into every part of Cape Colony and appears to thrive well everywhere, and the further fact that it has been shipped by the vessel load to the plains of Buenos Ayres with equally good results, prove almost conclusively that the bird can be domesticated in almost any climate.

*The above figures are taken from "Ostrich Farming in South Africa," by Arthur Douglass.

MANAGEMENT OF AN OSTRICH FARM.

In regard to the details of the industry and the management of the birds in a tame state, these are matters which can better be learned from those who have had practical experience, or from treatises which have been printed on the subject. I have taken the trouble, however, to confer on the subject with Messrs. Hill, Protheroe & Co., who have made the business of ostrich farming a special study, and are now engaged in importing the birds from Cape Town into the Argentine Republic; and they have handed me a pamphlet which furnishes so much information on all points of special interest, that I inclose a copy, as also a translation of the greater part of the same from the Spanish into the English language, believing, as I do, that the matter is of such industrial importance as to warrant its publication by the Department of State along with this report. The following, among many other facts, may be deduced from a perusal of this pamphlet:

1. That a league of land (say 6,000 acres) will, in an open state, readily subsist and accommodate 5,000 ostriches, being at the rate of one bird to the acre, though this is evidently understated.

2. That with suitable inclosures the cost of maintaining the birds is comparatively small, as they thrive on the most ordinary grass pasturage. An allowance of grain food, however, is advisable, as it increases the feather product.

3. That the birds will do well on most any kinds of soil, though that which contains gravel or small stones is preferable; that they are seldom sick, drink but little water, graze only during the day, and lie down to sleep wherever the night overtakes them.

4. That when the farm is properly fenced, the expense of management is trifling, no regular herdsmen being required.

5. That the female becomes a breeding bird at four and the male at five years of age; that until they are two years of age they can be herded in the open country, like sheep; that they drive very readily, and can be removed from one part of the country to another, on foot, with great rapidity.

6. That after they are two years of age they prefer to scatter or wander singly, and require more attention unless they are kept in inclosed pastures.

7. That, as they approach the breeding age, each pair must be kept apart in small inclosures.

8. That one pair of birds will hatch out a clutch of ten to fifteen chickens four times a year, thus producing from forty to sixty chicks in twelve months.

9. That the female will lay one egg every other day; and that when fifteen to twenty eggs are deposited in the nest, she will sit upon them during the day and the male bird at night; that the period of incubation is forty-two days, and that if the chicks are removed, to be brought up by the farmer, the female will at once begin to lay again.

10. That during the breeding season the birds should be carefully inclosed and protected, and receive a generous allowance not only of green stuff, but also of small grain, such as barley and corn.

11. That the young chicks for the first few weeks should be carefully housed from the cold and the rain; and especially to be sheltered at nights.

12. That the gross income derived from the chicks produced by one pair of birds is from $2,000 to $3,000 per annum; that is to say, the value of the chicks, one month old at Cape Colony, is about $50 apiece,

and on account of the feathers produced the value goes on increasing until the bird reaches the breeding age, when the ostrich attains its greatest value.

13. That the birds are plucked for their feathers at the age of six to eight months, and again every six to nine months, and every succeeding six to nine months.

14. That the value of the feathers of the chicks is only about $5 per bird, but the next pluckings yield from $40 to $150 per bird, so that, assuming the pluckings to average only $75 per bird, there will be a gross income of $150 in sixteen months or about, $112 per annum from each ostrich.

15. That when the bird becomes mature, each wing produces twenty five long white feathers, or fifty feathers in all (besides blacks, &c.), each feather at Cape Town being worth at least $5.

16. That with young and growing birds there will, even under the least hopeful view, be a profit of 75 per cent. from the feathers alone per annum, while the value of the birds will have more than doubled in the same time.

ARTIFICIAL HATCHING.

The pamphlet from which I have made the foregoing points confines itself principally to explaining the process of hatching the eggs naturally; but where incubators are used, we are informed that a much larger per cent. of chicks can be obtained from a given number of eggs; and, besides, no time being lost in setting, a larger number of eggs are yearly given by each female bird, and more chickens naturally obtained. Where incubators are used, the chicks are moreover of greater robustness than where hatched by the natural method. "Christy's incubator" is mentioned, but there is another, that of Mr. Douglass, which is spoken of as very superior. In Mr. Douglass' book on "Ostrich Farming in South Africa" he gives the following example of what can be done by an artificial incubator:

> One set of three birds—a cock and two hens—during the period from June 30, 1872, to June 30, 1873, laid 188 eggs, which produced 133 chicks; of these eighteen died, leaving 115 young birds. Of these, 74 were sold at three months old at £16 each, and allowing the remaining 41 to be worth only £12 each, we have a return of £1,676 from one set of birds. The next year the same set laid 113 eggs, producing 77 chicks; and the first six months of the third year they laid 97 eggs, producing 81 chicks, being over 80 per cent. This was before my incubators were brought to anything like their present perfection. But the same price would not be obtained for chicks now; neither in the last few years would so few of the chicks be lost in the rearing.

Mr. Douglass states, however, that with the most perfect incubators and with every attention, a batch of eggs will occasionally come out badly, the chickens being gluey and often deformed. It has been supposed that thunder affects them, but the opinion of Mr. Douglass is that the fault is in the eggs themselves; that if left to nature they would have failed to incubate at all, or have died in the early stages; but by the greater heat of the incubator they are brought to maturity.

INDUCEMENTS TO OSTRICH FARMING IN THE UNITED STATES.

It will be borne in mind that the pamphlet of Messrs. Hill, Protheroe & Co., from which I have made most of the foregoing points, is addressed to the people of the Argentine Republic with a view to inducing them to embark more largely in the new industry; and reference is continually made in the pamphlet to the inducements which the river Plate offers; but in their conversations they have assured me that all the con-

ditions which are requisite to the successful prosecution of ostrich farming are to be found in a still greater degree in some portions of our own country—for instance, California, Texas, and most of the Southern States, and they see no reason why this branch of business, which is now assuming such proportion in South Africa, may not be transplanted with even better results to the United States.

WHAT IS BEING DONE IN BUENOS AYRES.

There is now an ostrich farm in successful operation near Merlo, a small village about 15 miles from Buenos Ayres, under the charge of Messrs. Beaumont & Co. I have paid it a visit and was greatly interested in its workings. I am informed that it is doing splendidly, and finds a ready sale at high figures here in Buenos Ayres for its feather product. Another farm has just been started at the *Estancia* of San Carlos, about 150 miles west. It is a joint-stock concern, and is managed by Capt. John Page, an American, and the prospects of its success could not be better.

Messrs. Hill, Protheroe & Co. have now on sale in this city about 200 birds, which have just been landed here from Cape Town, having been safely transported over in the American bark Sarmiento, Captain Gould, with the loss of only six or eight birds. They are splendid specimens of domesticated ostriches. They stood the passage admirably, and are doing well, proving that with proper care they can endure the longest sea-voyages.

EXPENSE OF STOCKING A FARM.

In regard to the cost of stocking a farm in the United States, or of purchasing the birds in pairs, I presume that full particulars could be obtained from our consul at Cape Town, as also the expenses of freight, supervision, &c. The prices which have been paid here for full-grown birds have varied from £200 to £250 delivered, with graduated prices for the half-grown birds, according to their age; but I doubt not better terms than these could be obtained by direct correspondence with parties in South Africa. There is one thing about the birds which is to be considered in estimating their cost. They are exceedingly long-lived. It is asserted by some that, in the ordinary course of things, the ostrich is a centenarian; but of this there is no proof, and it is evidently nothing more than a piece of speculation. The calculation, however, which is usually applied to animals, that they live six times as long as it takes them to come to maturity, would give it an age of twenty-four to thirty years. So that a farm once stocked would be stocked for an average life-time, to say nothing of the annual increase of the birds.

PROSPECT OF THE NEW INDUSTRY.

There may be some hesitation about embarking in the business, on the ground that ostrich farming is likely to be overdone, and that any great increase would cause a collapse in the feather market. I do not think this is at all probable. Indeed, so far the effect has been very different. At Cape Colony to-day there is not less than £8,000,000 sterling* invested in the business, and the total value of the feathers produced yearly now amounts to $4,500,000. Fourteen years ago the value of the feathers exported from the Cape was $350,000, entirely from wild birds; and yet

* These figures are taken from Douglass's "Ostrich Farming in South Africa."

prices are as high now as they were then, while the fluctuations in value have not been so great as in the case of most other staple raw productions.

Nor does there seem to be any probability that the demand for the plumage will ever become less. It is not only part of the Court dress throughout Europe, but the feather is undoubtedly the most beautiful article of ornament of its kind, and as such it is to a great extent independent of fashion. It will always be worn, in all probability, so long as civilized humanity is not above arraying itself in borrowed plumage. The entire female sex of the world are the consumers of these beautiful feathers; and to fear a collapse in the industry appears almost absurd. Indeed, the profits of the present are so great as to render ostrich farmers careless of the distant future.

E. L. BAKER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buenos Ayres, September 15, 1881.

OSTRICH FARMING IN CAPE COLONY.

[A report translated from the Spanish by Messrs. Hill, Protheroe & Co., importers of ostriches at Buenos Ayres, and transmitted to the Department of State by Consul Baker.]

The South African ostrich is in many respects similar to the South American one; the former is, however, larger and produces incomparably finer feathers. The hen bird is covered with short feathers of a gray color, and attains maturity about the age of three to four years old, when she is ready to breed. The short feathers on the male ostrich are quite black, and he does not become a breeding bird until about five years old. The only feathers of any commercial value upon the ostrich are the long white, drab, and blacks which grow upon the wings, and the tail feathers.

HERDING THE YOUNG ONES.

Up to the age of eighteen months or two years ostriches can be herded in the open country, like sheep in flocks, two men, if on foot, being sufficient for 100 birds. Up to about this time they cannot bear to be away from their companions, and there is little fear of losing any. They graze only during the day; as soon as it becomes dusk they sit down wherever they happen to be, and remain there till morning. They do not drink much water; if they obtain it once every few days it is sufficient. They are easily frightened by any unusual object or sound, but quickly become accustomed to their surroundings. When one bird in a troop is alarmed, the others share it by instinct, and with raised wings start off at full speed. If not followed rapidly by the herdsmen, which tends to increase their panic, they soon stop and resume their grazing. It is best every evening to place them in a coral, for if left outside they are almost certain during the night to be alarmed several times, and to get scattered in the darkness, and it may take an hour or two in the morning to get them all together. Beyond the trouble, however, there is little to fear from this practice; indeed, when once accustomed to a farm, they are much less easily frightened, and seldom run far. The birds certainly enjoy more vigorous health when left outside, and the feathers are less liable to be injured by dirt, or to be trodden upon by each other. Short herbage is best adapted for ostriches; they eat clover, short grass, and all manner of weeds. Any sort of grain is good; lucerne or alfalfa cut up is excellent. They also require salt, small pebbles, and as many chopped-up bones as they will eat. Acorns, onions, carrots, indeed almost anything that may happen to be plentiful and cheap, may be given these birds with impunity. During heavy rain ostriches always sit down, and it is impossible to move them. Under five or six months old they should be placed under shelter when raining, but above that age, if in good condition, they can remain out in the most violent storms without injury; they are good swimmers.

HOW TO DRIVE THEM.

Ostriches can be removed from one place to another with ease. One man walks n front, him they follow; one or two men remain behind to drive them on, which is

simply done by voice, and the crack of whips. If going a long distance they should be allowed to graze while walking; birds of three months old can travel in this manner 3½ leagues per day, six months old birds about 4½ leagues, and above eight or nine months 6 leagues per day, without distressing them in the least. Short distances can be traversed much faster.

OSTRICH INCLOSURES.

Above the age of eighteen months or two years they begin to give the herdsmen trouble, as they have no desire to keep together, but prefer roaming about singly, or with a few companions. It is necessary, therefore, to keep them in inclosures, where they can wander at will, the usual custom being to leave them out both day and night. Wire fencing is in very general use in Cape Colony, and though the birds occasionally get entangled, such accidents occur but seldom. They soon become aware of the obstacle, and when frightened run in another direction. When the ground inclosed is very small, suitable for only one pair of birds, bushes or pieces of wood or reed must be placed within the wires, making the fence more visible.

BREEDING TIME.

As ostriches approach breeding age each pair must be kept apart in small inclosures, say 30 yards square, or as much larger as may be desired. The male bird, when in season, is very savage, and attacks man, inflicting sometimes severe injuries. A little care is necessary in entering their camps. A long bush flourished in the bird's face, or a stick forked at the end for the purpose of catching his neck, generally suffices to keep him off.

THEY ARE SELDOM SICK.

Few birds when properly cared for die from any sickness; more are killed by accident, the most common of which is the breaking of a leg. Even this, however, is rare, and, with ordinary attention, the risk of mortality with this hardy bird is very small. When frightened during the night they may run at full speed over a broken country, yet almost invariably escape uninjured. The reason appears to be that their wings bear them up, and they touch the ground quite lightly. If one breaks a leg, it happens in the day time when carefully stepping over a stony place with wings at rest—the foot slips, or a sudden fright causes the fall, and hence the accident. But, as we have said, such rarely occur.

OSTRICH-FEATHER FARMING.

The industry is divided in Cape Colony into two branches, that of ostrich-feather farming and ostrich breeding. We will first explain the former branch, that of ostrich-feather farming.

An ostrich is first plucked at the age of six to eight months, and again six to nine months later, and every succeeding six to nine months. The chicken feathers are of little value, say about £1 per bird, but the next and following pluckings realize from £3 to £30 per bird. The length of time between each plucking, the weight of the feathers, and the richness of their plumage depend partly upon what care is taken not to extract the feathers too early, thus causing injury to the wing, but more especially upon the quality of the pasturage, and therefore on the condition of the bird. If the ostrich has always a plentiful supply of food, the feathers will grow and ripen the quicker, and may be plucked every seven months; the quality and weight of the plucking are influenced by the state of the pasture in a most wonderful manner. When a bird on poor grazing will give a plucking not worth more than £8, or even less in cases of drought, the same bird, had he always been kept fat, would have produced feathers worth £30, or even more. It cannot be too clearly understood that the value of the feathers produced depends to the very last degree upon the condition the bird is kept in.

In this fact lies the great advantage which the river Plate has over Cape Colony. Most parts of the latter country continually suffer from drought, and grain is too scarce to feed the birds upon; they remain in low condition perhaps for months together; sometimes they die from sheer starvation; the feathers produced are in two cases out of three of the poorest description, and yet the industry pays better than sheep ever did there. Any one who has travelled in the Colony can testify how rarely a first-class feather is seen. As a necessary consequence of the poor pasture a much larger tract of ground must be inclosed for a certain number of birds than would be sufficient for the same number here, and the extra cost of fencing further heavily handicaps the South African farmer.

VALUE OF THE PLUCKINGS.

We have known the feathers from one ostrich in Cape Colony produce £30, and even more, per plucking, and the feathers have ripened regularly every eight months. In such cases the bird has been lucky enough always to have ample nourishment and a little grain. That this will be the general average return in the river Plate we see no reason to doubt, but should the yield be but £15 per plucking, and only every eight months, that will still mean a gross income of £30 in sixteen months, or £22 10s. per annum from one ostrich. Each wing produces 25 long feathers, or 50 long feathers in all (besides blacks, drabs, and tails), the majority of which, especially in male birds, are pure white. Even in Cape Colony a single good white feather cannot be obtained for less than £1, and a very ordinary one brings ten shillings. So from 50 feathers the above return may certainly be expected, and this leaves out of account entirely the blacks, drabs, and tails, which are also worth a considerable sum.

The great market for ostrich feathers is in London, where public auctions are periodically held; the demand is large and shows no signs of falling off. It seems probable, however, that all the feathers produced in this country for some time to come can be disposed of on the spot at better prices than in London.

EXPENSES OF MANAGEMENT.

From the number of sheep grazed upon one league of land in this country, we should estimate an average farm of this extent large enough for 5,000 ostriches. The expenses of management are comparatively slight. The farm being inclosed no regular herdsmen are therefore required. In most seasons no grain whatever will be necessary for feather-producing birds, although of course its use is always beneficial in producing the finest and weightiest feathers. By the purchase of a few pair of breeding birds any farmer can himself raise as many ostriches as he may care to keep.

PLUCKING THE FEATHERS.

The best mode of plucking the feathers is not to pull them out, but to cut the quill about an inch from the root, the most handy instrument for performing this operation being the same as is used in this country for paring the hoofs of sheep. The feathers are cut slightly before they ripen, in order to preserve the tips, which otherwise get frayed. The portion of quill left in the wing, when deprived of the feather speedily ripens, and may in a few weeks be pulled out with a pair of pincers, after which the new feather begins to form. It is at this time that a little grain is advisable, for plenty of food now makes the young feathers vigorous and healthy. Should the night be cold the birds are also better under shelter, for, deprived of their feathers, some injury may be done to the young ones just forming. From rain they are also better sheltered for a few weeks. These precautions are seldom taken in Cape Colony, but the little trouble and expense involved will be amply repaid by the better quality of feathers grown. The blacks, drabs, and tails are not cut, but simply pulled out by hand.

From the amount of capital required to fence in the somewhat barren lands of the Cape, ostrich-feather farming, pure and simple, is carried on only by a minority of the ostrich farmers, by men with enterprise sufficient to lay out considerable sums in fencing, and in the purchase of a troop of birds. These are, however, quite in sufficient numbers to absorb the yearly supply of chickens.

Some farmers buy breeding birds, and produce their own chicks, all of which they keep; should the farm not be inclosed at the time, there is still eighteen months to two years before the chicks give any trouble, and long before then the fencing will be finished.

Other farmers buy the chicks from the breeders, and pursue the same plan, while men whose farms are already inclosed perhaps purchase birds from twelve months to three and four years old, and at once obtain returns in the shape of feathers. Those, however, who invest in chicks obtain them at a price considerably lower than that paid for twelve month old birds, and the increase in the value of the young birds as they grow up is fully equal to any return given by the older birds.

Nor does the value of a twelve-month-old bird remain stationary; it goes on slowly increasing until of breeding age, when the ostrich attains its greatest value. Quite apart therefore from the feathers produced, this branch of the industry obtains a considerable percentage of profit from the continually increasing value of the bird itself,

PROFITS OF THE INDUSTRY.

Ostrich breeders in Cape Colony have found that if they obtain £10 for a chicken when one month old that the industry returns magnificent profits. For the first year or two at the Plate, when the demand will probably be brisk (once the business is

taken up), this price will in all likelihood be considerably exceeded; still it may be taken as a fair basis for calculating the profits of ostrich-feather farming.

100 chicks of this age will therefore cost	£1,000
Expenses for twelve months, say	200
Total cost	1,200

If 10 per cent. loss be allowed for mortality, ninety birds will be left thirteen months old, which will produce feathers about this time to the value of £900 (not counting the first plucking of chicken feathers), taking the least hopeful view of the matter. This is a profit of 75 per cent. from the feathers alone, while the value of the birds themselves will have more than doubled in the same time.

It will still be some time before ostriches above the age of twelve months, and bred in the Plate, can be purchased here in any numbers, and it will always be impossible to import them from Cape Colony as cheaply as they can be produced here, for the expenses, loss on board of ship, and risk generally, are very great, insurance except from total loss being impossible; and our experience leads us to think that one gale of wind on the passage would kill nearly the entire cargo.

The advantage, however, of purchasing imported birds from twelve months to three or four years old is, that while the feathers themselves will yield a handsome return, the birds speedily become of breeding age, and the profits derived from the sale of their chicks will be very great.

We will now proceed to describe the second branch of the industry, viz:

OSTRICH BREEDING.

The majority of ostrich farmers in South Africa are engaged in this branch of the industry. As the purchase of one pair of breeding birds does not require a large capital, or an extensive scale of operations, quite a small tract of ground needs to be inclosed, and, while no great amount of attention is necessary, the profits made are equally as great as feather farming.

One good pair of breeding birds, well fed, hatches out a clutch of chickens four times in the year, from ten to fifteen chickens in each clutch, or from forty to sixty chickens in the twelve months. All breeding birds are not, of course, equally good. Some perhaps will not produce more than half this number of chicks, but generally such difference arises from their youth, or insufficient feeding; whatever the cause. these birds are always sold for a proportionately lower price.

PERIOD OF INCUBATION.

The period required to incubate the eggs is forty-two days. A few days after one clutch is hatched they again pair (the chickens being removed when born, brought up by the farmer), and the female speedily lays the first egg, continuing to lay every other day until the number is complete. They then commence sitting, the hen occupying the nest, which is merely a hollow scraped out of the ground, from 3 or 4 o'clock in the morning until the same time in the afternoon, when she is relieved by the cock, who takes charge during the night.

BREEDING INCLOSURES.

Inclosures for breeding birds are of all sizes; the larger they are the less grain the birds require, We have seen them less than thirty yards square, and quite devoid of vegetation, green stuff and grain being given them twice daily. In these confined spots, strange to say, they often breed as well as anywhere else; still it is but natural that they will thrive, generally speaking, better in large camps—as such inclosures are called—than small ones. Neither is it necessary for the camp to be in a quiet spot. Many pairs of birds breed in the middle of villages, or alongside a main road, and do not appear to mind the traffic in the least; still, in such places accident or fright must occur more easily, and these may result in the desertion of the nest.

FOOD.

However large the inclosure we would recommend at least six pounds of barley (which is the best grain, though any other sort is good) to be given to one pair of birds daily, as well as green stuff, if the pasture itself affords none; also, as much salt, pebbles, and bones as they will eat. The allowance of grain must be very considerably reduced as the time for sitting on the eggs approaches, otherwise the high condition of the birds induces them to continue pairing. A few days before the chickens are ex-

pected the full feed of grain may be resumed, to bring the birds into season shortly after the young ones are removed.

The chickens for the first three days require no food; they may then be given alfalfa (or clover), cut up into very minute pieces, along with pieces of ostrich-egg shell, also chopped very fine. The alfalfa must be young and green; if ripe it is dangerous. They may be fed on any other green herbage; and when over fourteen days old soaked maize in small pieces, or other grain if crushed, is healthy. For the first few weeks careful protection from cold and rain must be afforded them, and at nights particularly they must be kept warm. These followed, the chickens will grow up vigorous, healthy birds, and the mortality be quite insignificant.

VALUE OF THE CHICKS.

If the chicks are sold by the breeder when under a month old the gross income from one pair of good birds will be from £400 to £600 per annum, but if he prefers to keep them until a few months old these sums are largely increased. We are convinced also that ostriches will be worth more in the Plate than in Cape Colony, from the richer feathers certain to be produced, and from the expenses attached to the industry being so much smaller.

The value of chicks increases very rapidly when young, because this is the only manner in which a return can be obtained from the capital invested. As the first good plucking of feathers becomes due the price increases more slowly, being merely influenced by the approach to breeding age.

It is apparent that once the industry has taken root in the Plate the demand for chicks will of necessity be greater than the supply; for the first two or three years ostrich breeding will probably pay better than feather farming.

INCUBATING.

In some parts of the Cape Colony the parent birds are not allowed to hatch out their own chicks, incubating being extensively practiced. No time being lost in sitting, a larger number of eggs are yearly given, and more chickens naturally obtained. The best incubator yet invented is Christy's strydro-incubator. With care all the fertile eggs produce healthy chickens. The profits derived from this method of ostrich breeding are often very much larger than anything we have represented above, and the results more certain. The process is easy to learn. From the printed instructions sent with each incubator, any careful person ought to incubate with success. The only labor connected with it is putting boiling water into the tank every morning, emptying it every night, and putting fresh hot water in.

IMPORTANCE OF THE INDUSTRY.

It is certainly cause for wonder that the profits of this industry are so enormous; but for years it was viewed with suspicion by the majority of South African farmers, although their more enterprising neighbors were gradually acquiring wealth. All fear of the permanency of the industry, however, appears to be wearing away, and it is being much more generally engaged in. The result will probably be seen in a gradual increase in the value of birds, until the profits have been brought down more to the level of the other industries of Cape Colony. That the importance of ostriches is at last being publicly recognized is shown by petitions from different parts of the Colony having been presented to the Cape parliament praying that the exportation of birds be prohibited, and a bill is, we understand, now actually being brought before the house which proposes to place a heavy tax upon all birds sent out of the country.

It may be supposed that the increase in the number of ostriches has been and is so great as soon to cause the production of feathers to exceed the demand for them. This day seems far distant, nor is the increase so great as it may appear. About ten or fifteen years ago wild ostriches existed in the Colony to the number of many thousands; these were shot in great numbers, and the remainder fled into the interior of Africa. It is doubtful whether at the present time there are one-quarter as many birds in South Africa as in years past.

There are many districts also where grain is too scarce to give the breeding birds, and they must trust almost entirely to the pasture for food. As this is generally very dry they do not breed more than once or twice a year, and the mortality amongst the chickens, from the entire absence of green stuff, is often large.

Many even of the older birds die from drought. Last year the district of Calvini, an immense tract of country, lost from starvation nearly all the ostriches in it; yet so great had been the profits in previous years that, except to beginners, little real loss was incurred.

THE TRADE OF ZANZIBAR.

REPORT BY CONSUL BACHELDER.

The only products of the island of Zanzibar are cloves, peppers, and cocoa nut.

The clove crop the last season, commencing in September and ending in June, can only be given from what my own knowledge enables me to say, as no statistics whatever are kept by the Sultan or any of his officers.

From actual inspection, and information obtained from the natives, I estimate the last season's crop at 1,400,000 pounds; which sold at an average of $9 per 35 pounds, or $360,000. This crop was the largest gathered since the hurricane in 1872; and each year now, for some years to come, the crop will continue to increase, as new trees are continually being planted and beginning to bear.

In this estimate it must not be understood is included the entire quantity of cloves exported from this place, as the entire product of the island of Pemba is brought to this market for sale and export. This crop is much larger, and was estimated the last year at 3,500,000 pounds, valued at $900,000; so that the entire clove crop of this island and Pemba reached the large quantity of 4,900,000 pounds, and brought the good sum of $1,260,000. Of this quantity there were exported to the United States 1,206,120 pounds, valued at $344,541.

Peppers.—This article, owing to the great advance in price abroad, fully equaling 100 per cent., has received a great deal more attention than formerly, and in consequence a large crop has been grown, which I estimate at 315,000 pounds, valued at $36,000. Of this, 37,000 pounds were exported to the United States, valued at $3,251.

The cocoa-nut growth of this island is not of much importance, and no statement can be given of the amount or value. None are exported to America, but most all go to France and are used in making soap.

The island has no manufactories or mines, and its people engage in fishing only enough to supply their own requirements.

The forests are small, and are only cut for firewood.

I have tried very hard to get statistics of the exports to all countries, but have been unsuccessful, nothing of the kind ever being given to the public. The revenue of the island is from the customs, which are farmed out to private parties, and which might be estimated at $500,000. From an extra tax on all cloves and rubber the Sultan obtains a further sum of about $400,000. This, with a moderate revenue derived from his own clove plantations, gives him an average income yearly of, probably, $1,200,000.

No statistics being given to consuls, or any one, of the imports, I am only able to form a statement of them from America.

England leads the world in exports and imports to and from this country by a very large amount, as her facilities by direct steam communication give her every advantage.

All kinds of manufactured cotton goods are brought here and have immense sale.

Manufactured iron and iron bars, wire, nails, &c., powder, canned goods, and many other articles which are required by the island, are all imported from England.

Many goods of American manufacture come here from England, as purchasers cannot obtain them direct.

LEONARD A. BACHELDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Zanzibar, East Coast of Africa.

COMMERCE, SHIPPING, &C., OF ST. HELENA.

REPORT BY CONSUL CROUCH.

The trade of Saint Helena remains in pretty much the same unsatisfactory condition as previously reported by my predecessor. Almost every article of consumption, whether in the shape of food or clothing, is imported from England and the Cape of Good Hope, to which I may also add British India, from whence a large quantity of rice is brought; that article, together with fish, which abounds on this coast, forming the staple food of the poorer classes of inhabitants.

We have had for several years past an American schooner running between here and the United States, bringing different articles of our American produce which has always found a ready market, more especially our American meats. I am sorry to say that the population of the island for the last ten years has decreased very much; in 1870, the population was 6,281; in 1880, 5,059; making a decrease of 1,222, census being taken in 1881.

SHIPPING.

The following is a general abstract of vessels which have anchored at Saint Helena or otherwise been communicated with during the year 1880.

Nations.	Vessels of war.	Merchant steamers.		Merchant vessels.		Whalers.		Total.	
		Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
American	.....	.....	.....	27	21,307	44	11,551	71	32,858
Austrian	1	.....	.....	5	3,752	.....	.....	6	3,752
British	18	41	77,567	305	240,831	.....	.....	364	318,398
Danish	.....	.....	.....	2	983	.....	.....	2	983
Dutch	.....	.....	.....	34	33,350	.....	.....	34	33,350
French	6	.....	.....	28	13,709	.....	.....	34	13,709
German	1	.....	.....	16	7,239	.....	.....	17	7,239
Italian	.....	.....	.....	9	6,680	.....	.....	9	6,680
Norwegian	.....	.....	.....	6	2,311	.....	.....	6	2,311
Portuguese	.....	.....	.....	2	585	.....	.....	2	588
Russian	.....	.....	.....	3	2,171	.....	.....	3	2,171
Spanish	.....	.....	.....	1	705	.....	.....	1	705
Swedish	.....	.....	.....	13	6,113	.....	.....	13	6,113
Total	26	41	77,567	451	339,786	44	11,551	562	428,854

It will be seen by looking over this abstract that our American merchant vessels very rarely anchor in our harbor. The only ships we have calling here, as a general thing, are our American whalers.

SOIL AND PRODUCTS.

I wish to make a few remarks in reference to the fertility of the soil and its products. Everything grows in abundance; vegetables of all kinds and many fruits that are found in the tropics, as well as those found in our well-favored land.

FARMS.

There are several very large farms, the largest of which is that at Longwood, leased from Her Majesty's Government by Thomas Deason, esq., having some 250 acres under cultivation. This year he produced some 2,000 bushels of potatoes, which were being sold at $2.50 per hundred weight.

There are two or three other very fine farms, owned by the firm of Solomon Moss, Gideon & Co., which produce annuallv great quantities of grain and vegetables. If our American ships would make a point of stopping here on their passage to and from the East Indies and China, with vessels of other nations, it would induce the farmer to raise more crops, so that produce could be sold as reasonably as in our own country, but if there is no shipping the home consumption is not enough to guarantee sufficient revenue to induce them to plant; so instead of tilling the soil they depend on their stock for support.

COFFEE.

Coffee grows remarkably well, and, I believe, is pronounced by competent judges to be equal or even superior to the celebrated Mocha.

FLAX.

Flax of a very superior quality is found growing on most of the hillsides, and for several years past a company called the Colonial Fibre Company has been utilizing it, but on account of poor machinery and the want of funds the company has been compelled to close; but their enterprising foreman, Mr. Davey (late of H. M. R. E.), has courageously taken the matter in hand, and several of the gentlemen of the island have offered to render him assistance. He has invented a very simple and novel machine for cleaning the flax, which bids fair to be a success, and if so, no doubt it will be one of the exports of the island, as there are thousands of tons under cultivation. I think if we had a few of our enterprising men to take this matter in hand it would pay handsomely.

STEAMERS.

I see from looking over the African papers that there is an American line of steamers about to run between New York and the Cape of Good Hope, and I think if they could make a point of stopping here on their passage to and from New York it would be a great advantage to them, as everything in the vegetable line can be bought so much cheaper than at the Cape, and there would hardly be a trip that there would not be more or less freight.

There is a large whaling fleet stopping here twice a year, and very often they have large quantities of oil to ship, and not only that but there is good sale for our American goods, more especially dress goods, salted provisions, and agricultural tools. Our meat always receives a ready sale and is much appreciated.

I have every reason to believe that in a very short time the island will be a free port to all shipping, as a memorial, signed by most of the inhabitants of the island, is about to be sent to Her Majesty's secretary of state for the colonies. This, if successful, will be of great benefit to all parties concerned, and will be of immense importance to the larger class of our merchant vessels.

WATER.

Water is found in abundance, of the finest quality, and is delivered to shipping at low rates. The hills abound in streamlets of the purest water; indeed, it may be stated that no place on the globe is better furnished in this respect than the little island of Saint Helena.

BUSINESS FIRM.

The principal business firm of the island is that of Solomon Moss, Gideon & Co. As shipping has been falling off so much of late years this house is the only one left to do the shipping business; the charges of the firm are generally reasonable, and the members are willing to do everything in their power to increase trade.

H. J. CROUCH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Saint Helena, September 25, 1881.

IMPENDING TOBACCO MONOPOLY IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRINNELL, OF BREMEN.

The declared exports from Bremen to the United States are ordinarily insignificant and uninteresting, and consist mainly of drugs, wine, glassware, sausages, rags, &c. But there are at present one or two features that, with the reasons for their existence, I deem of sufficient interest to record.

TOBACCO—SUDDEN INCREASE OF SHIPMENTS TO THE UNITED STATES—THE GOVERNMENT MONOPOLY AND THE ELECTIONS.

Shipments to United States from 1st to 25th, value, $43,819.61; 1st January to 30th September, value, $32,998.70; increase during twenty-five days, over nine months, $10,820.91.

In my dispatch No. 71, of 5th August, 1881, I spoke of the coming elections in Germany for members of the Reichstag, and of the apprehension felt here lest the result might enable the minister of commerce, Prince Bismarck, to carry out his scheme of a government monopoly in tobacco, such as exists in France, Italy, &c. This plan, to accomplish which he attaches as a bait a bill to pension the aged indigent and disabled lower classes, if carried out would be a terrible blow to Bremen, whose business in great part is in tobacco, five-eighths of the total commerce being directly and indirectly in this staple, as I am credibly informed. Whatever the exact fraction may be, Bremen is unquestionably the greatest tobacco market in the world, and the consummation of the above scheme would cause incalculable losses, pov-

erty, and suffering here. Already within the year the merchants are curtailing their business. We sold at least 5,000,000 pounds to Bremen of tobacco less during the first six months of this year than we did during the same period in 1880, which itself was the smallest year but one for many years. Warehouses for storage have depreciated enormously in value; at least fifty are now lying empty, idle, and useless.

The impending absorption of Bremen by the German Empire bears hardly enough upon this free community, which for near one thousand years has handed down, generation after generation, its laws and customs intact to its sons; but when this is compared with the monopoly scheme, it seems a light evil; more the sacrifice of a sentiment than an actual misfortune; but if both are to come upon Bremen her case is hard indeed.

Another feature in the present shipment, more curious than important, is the quantity of sauerkraut (pickled cabbage) sent this month, viz:

Sauerkraut to United States, from October 1 to 25, value, $16,062.38; from January 1 to September 30, value, $6,890.12; showing an increase of $9,222.26 in 25 days of this year over the exports of this article for 9 months of last year.

Cabbages have trebled in value, owing, it is said, to the demand from the United States, and the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg produces the best quality, as well as greatest quantity.

WILLIAM F. GRINNELL.
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bremen, October 26, 1881.

NEW ZEALAND WOOL.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

In view of the reduction of the duty charged on New Zealand wools imported into the United States having been brought before the Committee of Ways and Means of the House of Representatives, Washington, D. C., I have thought to submit for your information the following facts in regard to the wool trade of this colony. The total value of the exports of wool from the various ports of New Zealand for the year ended December 31, 1880, was $15,846,500, against $15,060,970 for the year 1879. The number of sheep in the various provinces of New Zealand for the year 1880 was 13,126,264, against 11,693,911 for 1879, showing an increase of 2,432,353 for last year.

There has been a slight falling off in quantity of the exports of wool for the two quarters ended June 30, 1881, as compared with that of the corresponding quarters of 1880, but the wool sent from here during the last two quarters was of a much better quality and finer texture than that heretofore exported, and I am glad to be able to say that the accounts which have thus far reached me of the prospects of the wool-clip of the approaching season (which begins in the North Island about the middle of November) appear to be much better than ever before in the history of the colony. The past winter was an exceedingly mild one, and, moreover, the rainfall was not as great as usual, thus enabling the shepherds to take better care of their flocks.

At one time nearly all the wool used in Great Britain and the United States came from Spain, Saxony, and Odessa, but now the principal sup-

ply is produced in the Australasian colonies. Of the seven Australasian wool-producing colonies, New South Wales ranks first, but New Zealand is the second in the list, Victoria coming in third. Out of about 300,000,000 pounds of wool annually produced in Australasia, New Zealand furnished fully one-fifth of that quantity, but notwithstanding the magnitude of this trade it must be regarded, at least so far as New Zealand is concerned, as only in its infancy.

Every year new lands are being occupied and put in condition for sheep raising.

The range of climate passing through 13° of latitude from temperate to semi-tropical regions enables the New Zealand farmer to utilize almost every fodder-plant known to exist. No expense is spared to improve the condition of the soil and grasses. Some idea of the wealth and enterprise of the New Zealand farmers can be formed from a recent statement in the Government Gazette, that there are several gentlemen in New Zealand each of whom own over 300,000, sheep. The Hon. Robert Campbell, of Omaru, sheared last season 363,000, and according to the census returns for 1881 the number of sheep owned by Mr. Allan McLean was 516,203. So much pains is taken to improve the condition of the sheep here that this colony has produced a distinct and superior variety. This fact is so well known that New South Wales, Victoria, and Tasmania flock-masters frequently import New Zealand rams and ewes to improve the breed of their own, the New Zealand sheep being especially adapted for combing purposes.

A FINE SHEEP-FARM.

Mr. Studholme has on his magnificent estate at Waimati, situated about half way between Dunedin and Christchurch, 2,050 stud merino ewes. Some of these came from the splendid estate of Mr. Kermode, the famous sheep-king of Tasmania, and others from the magnificent run of Mr. Rich of Bushy Park, Otago, New Zealand. Besides the merino stud flock at Waimati there are 11,000 merino ewes, 8,000 of which went to merino rams and the remainder to Lincoln-Leicesters. In addition to these there is a dry flock of 13,000 merinoes, besides 27,000 cross-breeds on various parts of the run. This splendid sheep-run does not however constitute the only valuable part of Mr. Studholme's farm. He has on his place, which consists of 120,000 acres, 2,400 short-horn cattle and 450 blooded horses. Fifty thousand acres of his land run from the hills to the sea. It is all good, strong wheat land, and it is said that 15,000 acres of it is not surpassed for fertility in the world. One field of 3,500 acres averaged last year over 45 bushels of wheat to the acre; 1,200 acres were put in oats and 400 in barley; the average yield of the former was from 50 to 107 bushels per acre, and the latter from 40 to 82 bushels.

Mr. Studholme charters his own ships, and recently sent the Glenavon to England with 1,500 tons of wheat and 150 tons of flour.

PRICES PAID FOR SHEEP.

At the last annual sale of stud sheep, held at the wool warehouse of the New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Agency, Collins street, Melbourne, on the 15th of September last, a blooded ram was sold to Mr. Denbigh Hall for 295 guineas. Another was sold to Mr. James Winter, of Dhuringile, for 185 guineas. These prices do not, by any means, represent the maximum paid for pure bred stock, for it is well known

that as much as 800 guineas, over $5,000, has been paid for a single ram in this colony.

EXPORTS OF WOOL.

I give below a table showing the quantity and value of wool exported from the colony of New Zealand for each year from 1870 to 1880, inclusive.

Year.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
1870	37, 039, 763	$8, 619, 720 00
1871	37, 793, 734	8, 030, 720 00
1872	41, 886, 997	12, 689, 595 00
1873	41, 535, 185	13, 512, 355 00
1874	46, 848, 735	14, 173, 475 00
1875	54, 401, 540	16, 990, 775 00
1876	59, 853, 454	16, 979, 080 00
1877	64, 481, 324	18, 294, 690 00
1878	59, 270, 256	16, 464, 035 00
1879	62, 220, 810	15, 060, 975 00
1880	66, 860, 150	15, 846, 500 00

DIFFERENT VARIETIES OF WOOL.

The wool of New South Wales is regarded, for fineness, as only second to the best of Saxony. Very little Saxony wool, however, now finds its way to the American market. Indeed, many think that the New South Wales wool is fully equal to the best Saxony for the manufacture of cloth. The Saxony may possess a little more gloss, but the New South Wales is much softer when finished, and takes more distinct and delicately-shaded colors in dyeing. The New South Wales wool, however, is far inferior to New Zealand wool for combing purposes. New Zealand wool is, in fact, a fine, long staple wool, very soft and silky, and of bright luster. It surpasses all other Australasian wool for receiving bright and fast colors. The American, French, German, and English manufacturers import it in large quantities to blend with and improve the harsh wools of other countries. German and American wool when used alone makes an indifferent-looking cloth, harsh to the touch and of short nap. New Zealand wool, on account of its great length of staple and its pliability and elastic properties, is especially adapted for mixing with the harsh and short staple wools of Europe and America. A large quantity of it is sold in the United States, under the name of Fine Berlin wool. It is a great favorite with the ladies, who, of course, are not aware that it never saw Germany. Much of the Victoria wool is also sold as Fine Berlin wool, and gives great satisfaction. The same thing can be said of the Tasmanian wool, which, although not quite equal to the New Zealand and Victoria, is nevertheless a first-rate article for combing and clothing purposes, and makes excellent flannels. South Australia or Adelaide wool, as it was formerly called, is altogether of a different variety from those mentioned above. Its quality is not so good, but it is very useful for working into certain grades of cloth. It is altogether unsuitable for the manufacture of blankets, being too fine and possessing in too high a degree the properties of felting. Blankets made from it are so heavy and clumsy as to be unfit for use. After a long and close study of the wool industry of these colonies, a study in which I have been aided by the practical experience of some of the most prominent sheep-masters and wool-staplers in Australasia, I have reached the conclusion that the New Zealand wool is better adapted

to the various articles of American manufacture than that grown in any other colony. Besides its great length of staple and superior combing properties, it is especially adapted for goods requiring luster. Its use for medium cloths and tweeds gives very general satisfaction. It resembles English wool more than any other, and is often of much better quality. It works up well and is of a fine, soft, silky texture. It does not mill so fast as the Australia wools. It is deeply grown, and very full and close in the staple. When properly assorted it furnishes many varieties. It is very white and clear and is suitable for any colored dye. It does not when worn shrink up like some kinds of Australian wool. Its employment in the manufacture of American blankets and flannels is becoming more and more popular.

Wool when examined under a glass in countries where there is a varying temperature, one portion of the fiber will appear thinner as compared with other portions. This is generally due to the different degrees of heat and cold under which it was grown. In the North Island of New Zealand this peculiarity is wholly absent, the fiber being even and fully developed throughout its length, a circumstance no doubt due largely, if not wholly, to the even and steady temperature of this fertile colony. Mr. Osborne, an old wool-buyer of Auckland, to whom I addressed some interrogatories on the subject of wool, says in reply:

I am an old wool-stapler of at least forty years' experience, and have a good knowledge of what the different kinds of wool are suitable for, and I do not hesitate to say that the New Zealand wool is by all means the best suited for articles of American manufacture, and for mixing with and improving American, German, and English wools. I may state that I was in the habit for many years of selling large quantities of wool to American houses through my London brokers, and therefore can speak advisedly on the subject.

DUTIES CHARGED ON NEW ZEALAND WOOL.

It appears to me that the duties now charged on New Zealand wool imported into the United States could be modified, with very great advantage to both countries. The existing tariff practically closes the American market to the wool-producers of the Australasian colonies. The New Zealand wool that reaches the United States, instead of going direct is sent to Liverpool for transshipment to the American ports, thus subjecting it not only to extra charges for freight, but for handling it during the process of transshipment. When wool can be sent direct, the trade will soon reach vast proportions. I may as well mention in this connection that a movement is on foot to establish direct steam communication between this colony and London.

A bill for subsidizing a steamship line was introduced during the last session of the New Zealand Parliament, and was favorably reported upon by the committee, and only failed to become a law through want of time to reach it. This, together with the threatened withdrawal of the subsidy to the San Francisco mail service, and the probable completion of the canal across the Isthmus of Panama, will very seriously affect the trade and commerce between the United States and these colonies. Should, however, the duties on wool be reduced, the American merchants will have little to fear from the opposition of subsidized direct steamship lines to London, or from any other plans to direct the Australasian trade from its proper channel.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, N. Z., October 10, 1881.

GERMAN EMIGRATION AND COLONIZATION.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN.

Emigration from the fatherland, principally to the United States, has assumed gigantic proportions in the course of this year. This unprecedented exodus is engaging the serious attention of the German economists, and especially that of the Imperial Chancellor. The former have been calculating the working value of the average emigrant, and state that the services of every laboring man leaving the country may be valued at $1,000; there can be but little doubt that every emigrant is worth that yearly amount to the United States. Computing the wealth the United States acquire by the influx of population on this basis, and estimating the number of emigrants to the United States during the year of 1881 as having reached 600,000, the country would have gained in that period $600,000,000.

As a matter of grave consideration, and in order to call urgent attention to the extraordinary drain on the young men population subject to military duty, Prince Bismarck has lately submitted to the Bundesrath (federal council) a series of tables showing that during the year 1880 no less than 11,454 young men liable to military service have left Germany for the United States, and, as in the course of this present year the number of emigrants was unusually large, it seems not unlikely that the army may be deprived of at least 20,000 young men.

In order to check this tide of emigration, the public posting of placards from emigration agents and foreign steamship companies has been prohibited in Berlin, and a bill throwing all kinds of technical difficulties in the way of emigration is likely to be introduced in the next session of the Reichstag. In addition to this, the provincial authorities in Prussia have been ordered to inquire into, and report on, the extent and causes of this alarming emigration.

The following table shows the progressive scale of emigration from Germany for the last eight years:

In the year 1875, about	30,000
In the year 1876, about	29,000
In the year 1877, about	23,000
In the year 1878, about	25,000
In the year 1879, about	34,000
In the year 1880, about	110,000

The emigration fever has, to the amazement of the local authorities, spread to such regions during the present year as have hitherto been free from it. This has been especially the case in the Rhenish Westphalian coal, iron, and mining districts, to an extent which promises to prove a serious drain on the labor market of that locality. Exact statistics of the movement from Rhineland and Westphalia are not available, but it is calculated that at least 39,000 persons from those two provinces have embarked within the summer season, and that the coal mines in Westphalia alone have in all likelihood lost from 5,000 to 6,000 operatives by emigration during that period. It is of frequent occurrence that the pioneers of the movement return as recruiting labor agents amongst their companions, and there is every prospect that the exodus will be on a large scale in the coming year. The movement is by no means restricted to the ignorant, inexperienced, or destitute persons, for the

average amount withdrawn by each family is estimated at from 2,000 to 3,000 marks.

That Germany, on account of the extraordinary increase of her population and her consequent overpopulation, will have to give up from time to time to foreign countries a certain portion of her inhabitants, seems to be a settled conviction amongst her statisticians and economists. Emigration is considered a necessary consequence in the nature of events. But the principal object of the ruling powers here is to prevent the enormous waste of capital and labor consequent on emigration, to open up new markets for German manufactures, and to check the exodus to the United States, whose free institutions constitute so strong an attraction to Germans. The question of acquiring transatlantic territory for colonizing purposes is at present very elaborately discussed and ventilated through the press, in commercial circles, and in public meetings. It is proposed to organize settlements on a large scale in foreign territories, where Germans should remain dependent, to a certain degree, on the fatherland, and where the national spirit and customs should be upheld and cultivated, and German manufactures be consumed, and thus utilize the transatlantic brothers in the economical interests of the mother country. It is calculated that the colonists should mainly devote themselves to agriculture and send the products of their soil to the old country in exchange for German manufactures. The movement is undoubtedly gaining in extent rapidly amongst the people, and the chambers of commerce and boards of trade have submitted the feasibility and expediency of the colonial policy to Prince Bismarck in their respective annual commercial reports. The Imperial Chancellor, however, keeps, at present, aloof from the movement, and seems to regard it in a lofty way, but still with some inclination to favor and encourage it unofficially. He has not yet manifested any disposition to invest this matter with governmental authority, and it is hardly expected that he will do so in the near future. So far, the colonial policy is restricted to *private* enterprise, and is fostered and agitated by different societies, disseminated throughout the length and breadth of Germany. At the head of these organizations stands the "Central Society for Commercial Geography, and Advancement of German Interests in Foreign Countries," having its field of operations in Berlin; next in importance is the "West German Branch Society for Colonization and Export," which has its seat in Barmen. Besides these there have been organized, in furtherance of these colonial schemes, about a dozen other unions, in all parts of Germany, working very earnestly and harmoniously in promoting the movement by scattering gratuitous pamphlets over the country, by advocating it in public prints and by public speakers, and by striving to popularize it in every possible way. The southern part of Brazil and the Argentine Republic are proposed, as being favorable localities for the establishment of German colonies.

Whether these various colonization schemes will ultimately be shaped into a tangible plan of operation is yet a matter of mere speculation. But many German idealists dream that in times to come a great sister German empire will arise, wherein Germany could not only transfuse her overpopulation, but wherein, also, certain markets for her industrial products will be assured to the manufacturers of the fatherland.

WOLFGANG SCHOENLE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Barmen, October 28, 1881.

FRENCH COMMERCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROOSEVELT, OF BORDEAUX.

I trust the following details will prove of interest, as showing the extent of the import and export trade of France at the present time:

An article of import which is acquiring great importance in France is ordinary wine; 116,292,000 gallons were imported during the first eight months of this year, being about 6,600,000 gallons more than was imported during the corresponding period last year.

The arrivals of this year comprise 80,366,000 gallons from Spain, 27,632,000 gallons from Italy, and the remaining 8,294,000 gallons from Austria, Portugal, and the Ottoman Empire.

Colonial Sugars.—1881, 49,000,000 kilograms, being 2,000,000 less than the importation of that article during the corresponding period last year.

Import of foreign sugars in 1881 amounted to 29,000,000 kilograms, showing a marked decrease since last year, when the quantity imported was 54,000,000 kilograms. The exportation of refined sugars has decreased 90,000,000 kilograms in 1879, and in 1880 76,000,000 kilograms were exported, while only 62,000,000 kilograms have gone out this year.

Coffee.—A very marked increase has taken place in the arrivals of this article, from 52,000,000 kilograms last year to 85,000,000 this year; the consumption, however, has only increased 5,000,000 kilograms. The exportation has been very active, from 14,000,000 kilograms last year to 22,000,000 kilograms this year; nevertheless this result leaves a very large stock of coffee on hand.

Cotton.—A considerable increase is noted in the arrivals, 121,000,000 kilograms the past eight months, an increase of 24,000,000 kilograms as compared with the same period of last year.

Wool.—In this article the importation has largely decreased, 82,000,000 kilograms this year instead of 107,000,000 kilograms the corresponding period of 1880.

Wheat.—The arrivals, which were 13,500,000 quintals the first seven months of 1879, and 13,000,000 quintals in 1880, have fallen to 8,250,000 quintals this year.

The values of merchandise imported and exported during the first eight months of this and last year are given by the customs authorities as follows:

Imports, 1881:	
Alimentary substances	$227,912,156
Natural products and materials for manufacture	295,559,621
Manufactured articles	63,759,480
Other articles	33,877,869
Total	621,109,126
Imports, 1880:	
Alimentary substances	$225,353,039
Natural products and materials for manufacture	294,192,023
Manufactured articles	57,290,699
Other articles	29,067,730
Total	606,403,491

Exports, 1881:	
Alimentary substances	$91,667,666
Natural products and materials for manufacture	79,368,741
Manufactured articles	213,300,705
Other articles	24,883 683
Total	409,220,795
Exports, 1880:	
Alimentary substances	$86,018,556
Natural products and materials for manufacture	85,037,923
Manufactured articles	230,590,996
Other articles	33,941,264
Total	435,58[illegible],739

GEO. W. ROOSEVELT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, October 19, 1881.

THE PHYLLOXERA AND CONDITION OF THE VINEYARDS IN FRANCE.

REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE INTERNATIONAL PHYLLOXERA CONGRESS, HELD AT BORDEAUX FROM OCTOBER 10 TO 15, 1881, BY DR. JOHNSTON, CONSUL ROOSEVELT, OF BORDEAUX, AND CONSULAR AGENT SMITH, OF COGNAC.

[Transmitted to the Department of State by Mininster Morton, of Paris.]

I have the honor to transmit herewith the report of the three commissioners whom you authorized me to appoint—Messrs. Roosevelt, Smith, and Johnston—as representatives of the government to the International Phylloxera Congress, at Bordeaux, which closed on the 15th ultimo.

The inclosed condensed report is the joint work of Messrs. Roosevelt and Smith, as revised by Dr. Johnston, and will, I think, be found to be of great interest to the class of our citizens who are engaged in vine-growing.

While admitting the usefulness, under certain conditions, of submersion and insecticides as remedies for the phylloxera, the congress indicated a decided preference for the transplanting of the ruined vineyards with American vines. Public opinion, as expressed through the press, has sustained the decision of the congress.

The vitality of the vine in France has been sensibly diminished by overplucking, overpruning, and increasing attempts from French vine-growers to meet the increasing demand of each year. The phylloxera regions are described as a vast wilderness of barren vines.

In view of the commerce which is likely to spring up in American vines, the report of our delegates will be found especially interesting, as it indicates in detail the different species of American vines which grow best in French soil, and even in which part of French soil, as also the best variety for grafting or for natural grapes.

L. P. MORTON,
Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Paris, November 3, 1881.

REPORT.

The destruction of the grape-vine by the insect known as the phylloxera has reached such a point in France as to constitute it a great national calamity. Something like a million and a quarter of acres of vines have been totally destroyed, and about the same number of acres have been attacked and are now undergoing the process of destruction. The loss to the vine-growers is estimated in the official statistics at the enormous figure of $400,000,000.

The destruction of so large a portion of the nation's wealth, and the fact that the ravages of the insect are daily spreading, naturally created an alarm which has grown with the growth of the evil, until at last it was deemed necessary to hold an International Congress, to see if any new facts could be brought to light on the subject, any new device proposed to put a stop to the devastating plague, and at the same time to demonstrate, if possible, to the national legislature the necessity of an appropriation for the replanting of the vineyards of the ruined vine-growers.

The French Government, therefore, acting under the urgent solicitation of the interested parties, and anxious to contribute to the object in view, willingly consented to call an International Congress; and while indicating a large number of its own citizens as delegates, invited also such of the foreign governments as were interested in the question to appoint delegates.

In accordance with this call, about 400 delegates met at Bordeaux on the 10th of October, in the hall of the Alhambra, where had already been arranged an interesting exhibition of the different products calculated to throw light on the investigations of the congress. The most attractive part of this exhibition was the different species of American vines; the American vines which had been grown in France, grafted and ungrafted, and the fruit which these vines had produced.

Mr. Tirard, minister of agriculture and commerce, who was to have opened the congress *ex officio*, was prevented from attending by illness, and Mr. Armand Lalande, president of the chamber of commerce of Bordeaux and deputy in the chamber, presided, assisted by the following vice-presidents: Mr. Luna, of Spain; Mr. Allen, of Portugal; Mr. G. W. Roosevelt, United States consul at Bordeaux, of the United States; Dr. Jules Muller, of Austria; Mr. T. Dyer, of Australia; and Mr. Trimon, of the Cape of Good Hope.

The morning session was occupied by the organization of the congress and the address of the president.

Mr. Lalande commenced by expressing pleasure at seeing so many delegates from France and foreign countries, and said some were from the remotest regions of the globe; from the United States, from Australia, and the Cape of Good Hope. He then passed to the subject before the congress, and mentioned that three methods of resisting the phylloxera would be consecutively examined, namely: Submersion, whenever it is practicable; Insecticides, which have been proved efficacious to preserve vines still alive; American vines, with roots capable of resistance to the insect, to replant the vineyards already destroyed. One or the other of these three remedies, in the opinion of the president, could be successfully employed, according to the nature of the soils, and afford growers of vines a precious means of defense with certainty of success. The examination and discussion of these remedies, he said, would be the object of the sittings during the first three days of the congress.

In order to facilitate the discussions, three committees had previously been formed with full power to visit the vineyards, and to report upon the branch confided to them: one committee for submersion, the sulphuret of carbon and sulpho-carbonates; another for American vines and plantations in sandy soils, and the third to examine specially the various remedies proposed which were not embraced in the first two committees.

These reports, he said, would be given orally to the Congress, by the respective reporters of the committees, and from the basis of the proceedings during the first three days.

The president then expressed his satisfaction at the results obtained by the use of sulpho-carbonates and the sulphuret of carbon. He showed that the great expense of the sulpho-carbonates had thus far restricted its application to vineyards which yielded a large revenue, either in the quality of the wine or in large quantities, and he thought that the employment of this remedy had not been as great as it deserved to be. The sulphuret of carbon was less expensive, he said, than the sulpho-carbonates, and its use had consequently been more general. But it had, too, its weak side; for the beneficial results can be affected by the nature of the soil, its greater or less depth or permeability, and its capacity to hold the sulphur. The difference of the seasons and the temperature, unusual cold, great rains, following close upon the sulphur treatment, could mar the effects of it.

As to submersion, the president said, its good results had been confirmed. A large number of vineyards in the Gironde and elsewhere, which had been assailed and threatened with entire destruction, had been rapidly and permanently restored to a splendid condition of vegetation by submersion.

Finally the president referred to the replanting with American vines capable of resisting the phylloxera, and he inclined to believe that this remedy would be found to be one of the best proposed.

The introduction of the American vine is due to the enlightened enterprise of Mr. Laliman, who first tested its resisting powers in his vineyards at La Souys in 1869 and then discovered the important fact that it was proof against the attacks of phylloxera. But little attention, however, was paid to the subject at first, and it was only in 1873 that public attention was awakened to the subject by a more extended trial made in the department of the Hérault that year. Examples, he said, were numerous, and went to prove that certain varieties of American vines, such as Jacquez, Herbemont, and others, can be employed, and that they successfully resisted for the past ten or twelve years since they were first planted, in vineyards where the French vines had been totally destroyed, and they now offered the aspect of a luxuriant vegetation. But the chief use of American vines, he seemed to think, would be, in France at least, to serve as trunks on which might be grafted and preserved the incomparable varieties of French vines. As a personal opinion, the president thought that the Riparia made the best trunk.

The president then resumed his opinions, and concluded his address by saying that submersion should be employed when it was possible; chemical remedies to preserve the precious portion of the vineyards still alive, and American vines to replace the French vineyards destroyed.

The order of the day was next taken up. It consisted of reports by several delegates from foreign countries, which will be resumed further on, of the state of the vineyards in their respective countries, the com-

parative invasion of them by phylloxera, the remedies successfully employed, and the result obtained by their employment.

The morning sitting was then closed by an official visit to the exhibition of chemicals, and instruments for using them, machines for submersion, American plants, photographs, engravings, &c.

The exhibition was very complete, especially in the different varieties of American vines now cultivated successfully in France, either for direct production or to be grafted upon. Among those exhibited were the following specimens, which had cards attached to them giving the name, the age of the vine, the vineyard from which it was taken, and the name of the grower: the Clinton, Vialla, York, Madeira, Delaware, Jacquez, Cunningham, Solonis, Riparia, Neosho, Herbemont, Muscat, Isabella, Elvira, Black July, Norton's Virginia or Cynthiana, all exhibted in full bloom as specimens of successful culture of American vines in France.

In the section of the exhibition appropriated to chemicals and machines were to be seen phosphates, sulphates, photographs of the vine roots magnified, and of the phylloxera in the various shades of incubation magnified fifty times and living on the roots of the vines. The different prices of all these objects, pamphlets showing the method to use them, &c., were artistically arranged, as everything of this kind is minutely done in France.

The afternoon sitting was employed in discussing the first remedy for phylloxera.

The remedy by submersion, in the opinion of the committee appointed to examine it and report upon, it was efficacious, and in localities which rendered its use possible no opposition to its successful employment had been manifested among the farmers visited by the committee. The effect of it was certain, and left no ground for criticism. Submersion is defined to be the employment of large quantities of water in the form of inundation of the field to suffocate the insect by cutting off all communication with the air. The vineyard thus inundated should be kept submerged at least six inches deep for a period varying from thirty to sixty days. The inundation must be renewed annually or the phylloxera will at once revive.

Machines for inundation will be exhibited in operation at the floating docks of Bordeaux on the last day of the congress, and description of them will be given in the course of the report.

The various speakers who followed the reporter on submersion showed that one of its consequences is to dissolve the phosphates and fertilize the land inundated. The muddy waters of the Gironde are, it was shown, particularly rich in alluvion and favored this remedy from the facility with which the vineyards on its banks can be submerged. Clear water will also leave a deposit on the land, but is less advantageous than tidal streams.

Submersion is not practicable except for lands in plains and bordering on rivers or canals. The congress arrived at this conclusion after showing the great difficulties in the way of submerging other lands, even those bordering on small rivulets. Even with tidal streams the addition of composts is deemed indispensable in submersion, and will vary according to the year and nature of the soil.

The conclusions adopted by the committee were the following:

1st. Submersion should be employed between March and November, and is a sure remedy for the restoration and preservation of vines attacked by phylloxera.

2d. Submersion must be repeated each year.

3. Submersion, at least in the southwest of France, where it is chiefly employed, caused vines of tender wood, as the Malbec, to push forward too rapidly, while harder varieties, as the Mausin, Verdot, and Cabernot yield their crops more regularly.

4th. Composts are recommended whenever the submersion is made with clear water.

5th. When submersion is effected by tidal streams rich in mud, the residue seems to answer the purpose of fertilization. It is nevertheless recommended to use 100 kilograms of potassium and 4 kilograms of phosphoric acid annually to the hectare, or two acres and a half.

The congress was urged to adopt general resolutions recommending submersion for a great many vineyards in a position to make use of it. This closed the first day of the congress.

The second day, Tuesday, was devoted to the consideration of chemical remedies, and the report of the committee appointed to examine the merits of sulphuret of carbon and sulpho-carbonates.

The reporter began by declaring that the conclusions of the committee were that the remedy was a sure and infallible one. He next proceeded to give proof of this assertion and to explain the remedy. Its practical results were shown, and all theoretical problems discarded. The sulphuret of carbon and the sulpho-carbonates of potassium, he said, protect entirely the roots of vines, and restore them to a healthy condition when diseased; by an annual application of the remedy vines in the last stages of the disease had been brought back to life.

In the exhibition, photographs could be examined, showing how admirably vines treated by these remedies had improved and yielded fruit the third year. Numerous vineyards were then cited in support of his argument; among others the syndicate of Pomeral, where the congress would be invited the last day of the sessions to inspect the vineyards treated and restored by this method.

The third year of treatment, he said, was the crowning of the work. The normal condition of the vines was recovered, the growth of the wood and the fruit regular. It only remained to continue the treatment annually.

The committee then gave its opinion that, between the two remedies, the sulpho-carbonate of potassium acts more promptly and efficiently than the sulphuret of carbon. Vineyards in the Gironde, Lot and Garonne, and in the Dordogne were cited in support of this opinion. The nature of the soil, its depth and fertility have also a preponderating weight in this matter, and the rapidity with which the vines recuperate depends upon these elements. It is in exact proportion to the depth of the soil, and success depends upon the existence of a considerable quantity of silver. Wherever these elements are wanting the treatment has not succeeded. Wherever the average depth of the soil does not exceed forty centimeters, the treatment has been ineffectual and has had to be abandoned.

The rich soils, even, will not of themselves be sufficient, but must be aided by composts. The first year of treatment by the sulpho-carbonates requires a mixture of two hundred and fifty grams of sulphate of ammoniac, one hundred and fifty kilograms of superphosphate containing at least twenty per cent. of phosphoric acid to the hectare. This must be applied to the roots of each vine.

For the application of sulphuret of carbon a similar combination of compost was given to be used simultaneously with the remedy.

The age of the vines was next taken into consideration. The young vines, although more susceptible to phylloxera, were more easily cured

than old ones. The latter do not, in the opinion of the committee, possess sufficient recuperative powers and cannot be restored.

The speaker resumed by declaring that the circumstances were found in the nature of the soil and the age of the vines; the means of restoration, in chemical remedies, composts, and manual labor. He then proceeded to count the cost of these remedies. The cost of the remedy as compared with the income of the vineyard must necessarily show, he said, that the operation will be remunerative.

In presence of growers, assembled from all parts of the country, the object would be, he continued, to determine the relative expense in a general manner, rather than to enter into calculations adapted to any particular region.

The annual application of from 150 to 200 kilograms of sulphuret of carbon, and from 400 to 600 kilograms of sulpho-carbonate of potassium, is the basis of the culture. The total expense may be estimated at 130 francs the hectare in some regions, and at 170 francs in others. An average, therefore, of 150 francs would be a correct estimate.

The chemical composition of the compost was then explained, and consists of a combination of 100 kilograms of potassium, 50 kilograms of azote, 40 kilograms of phosphoric acid per hectare.

The expenses for each successive year were then resumed, and as they will be different according to the country, it seems hardly worth while to enumerate them here. But as a general estimation, the expense per hectare may be estimated, he said, at 1,000 francs, including therein the cost of the chemical combination, the compost, expense of cultivation, interest on the capital invested, &c. In the great vineyards of the Medoc, however, this estimate would have to be increased, but the superior price of the wine produced, even in years of small vintage, will be far more than the expense incurred by the outlay. The speaker then related a number of facts confirming the statements he had advanced, and terminated by a long series of resolutions, of which the more important are as follows:

1st. The vines in Europe can be protected by means of sulphuret of carbon and sulpho-carbonate of potassium.

2d. The soil best adapted for the reformation of the vines must be deep and fertile, whereas the poor superficial and limestone land does not afford any hope of defense.

3d. The addition of composts regularly is indispensable.

4th. The treatment must be continued at least three years.

5th. The annual expense per hectare can be estimated at 500 francs for the sulpho-carbonate of potassium and the expense of compost at 300 francs, and as a general thing it may be said that the price the first year for sulphuret of carbon will be 450 francs per hectare, and for the sulpho-carbonate of potassium 700 francs. The following years it would be 300 francs for the first-named chemical and 500 francs for the second.

A number of scientific men and vine-growers were then heard, the order of the congress limiting each to thirty minutes. They confirmed the conclusions of the committee, varied only in a trifling manner according to the locality, the nature of their land, and the intensity of the phylloxera. There seemed to be unanimity on this subject. But there were so many inscribed to speak on this subject that an evening sitting became necessary, and lasted until after midnight. Mr. Moulin, president of the court of commerce of Cognac, was so frequently quoted that his testimony was regarded as of great importance. He said that he had tried the remedy upon his own vines for a number of years, and that he had found it a certain one, and were all the growers of the grand

champaigne of the Charente to apply it, their vines would soon be in a flourishing state again. The sulphuret of carbon costs, he said, 50 francs the kilogram, and it requires from 60 to 100 grains to each vine stalk, making on the average, at the maximum the first year of 100 grains, 10 cents a vine. The quantity is reduced each year until a minimum of 50 grains is reached, which would make the cost but 5 cents a vine, and this quantity, and perhaps a less quantity, will effectually protect them from the phylloxera.

Wednesday, October 12, 1881, was the third day of the congress, and was devoted to the consideration of the feasibility of the reconstruction of the vineyards destroyed in France, either by means of American plants or American grafts.

This discussion may be said to have occupied the remainder of the time of the congress. The question of planting American vines became at one time so acrimonious that it was impossible not to perceive interested motives prevailing in the discussion, but which should find no echo in this report beyond the simple mention of the fact.

The reporter of the committee charged to examine the subject of replanting the desert vineyards with American vines was first heard. In a very interesting discourse of more than two hours in length, the reporter passed in review the different vineyards which they had visited, the state of the vines, and the quality of their resistance. He showed, first, that in the south of France, in the departments of the Hérault, the Gard, and the Var, the plantations of the American vines upon which the French grafts had been made yielded fruit in the same abundance as in former years of plenty. The species known as the Jacquez and the Herbemont were preferred to graft upon.

In the departments of the southwest, those of the Gironde, &c., the number of vineyards inspected had been greater than in the south. The agricultural school of Montpellier, where the species were chiefly the Riparia and York-Madeira, the estates of Messrs. Leenhardt, Planchon, Gaston Basille, and others, all of Montpellier, showed that American vines planted in soils where French vines had been destroyed by the phylloxera had thrived.

At Montpellier, where the respective merits of these plants have been carefully studied, a single cutting of the Jacquez, which was set in the place of a native vine that succumbed to phylloxera in 1877, produced this year forty-three large bunches of grapes; while three vines of the Canada, only six years old, in the same place, bore thirty-six pounds of fine grapes this year, and other varieties have turned out no less satisfactorily. The difference in species varied according to the temperature and soil.

It would seem to be superfluous to enumerate all the examples, as they were all favorable to the vines.

The reporter affirmed that within a year or two the number of these vines had increased, and that the interest in them had continued unabated.

The reporter next proceeded to examine the resistance of the American vines, their adaptation to the country, the choice of grafts, and, finally, the grafts themselves and the conditions of success.

He said that it would be to-day quite useless to doubt the resistance of American vines. In all cases the committee had received proof that wherever the French vines had perished, American vines planted in their place had presented everywhere, for ten to fifteen years past, all the signs of healthy existence. Some difference would, however, be made between the different species, according as to whether they belong

to the family of the Labrusca, the Æstivalis, or the Riparia. But the Labruscas even, which are considered the least resistant, are nevertheless cultivated successfully by large growers, such as the Duchess of Fitz James, and others. The satisfactory condition of the Jacquez, Herbemont, Cunningham, Norton's Virginia, and Black July was everywhere remarked, and some dated back eighteen years. The Riparia, York, and Solonis not only resist but are entirely free from phylloxera.

The question of adaptation to the soil was next treated, and it was shown that although all the varieties of American vines resisted more or less the phylloxera, they did not all grow with equal vigor in all places. As with the French varieties, which required careful discrimination in order to adapt each to the soil which was best for it, so it was necessary that the American varieties imported into France from the latitudes of a continent so vast as America must be adapted in France to regions which correspond to those from which the vines originated, by taking into consideration the elevation of the temperature, moisture, &c.

By reference to these principles the Jacquez was much more vigorous and fruitful in the south of France than in the southwest; while the Herbemont and Cynthiana, or Norton, are the favorite vines in the southwest, of which Bordeaux is the commercial center. The Riparia and York prosper equally well in both regions; although the former seems more at home in the southwest than inthe south; perhaps in consequence of the moisture, which is greater there on account of more frequent rain.

The different varieties employed for direct production or for being grafted upon were then discussed, but it would seem most unnecessary to prolong this report by too many details; in a few weeks an official list will be published and may be translated, if thought necessary or useful. The principal varieties, however, mentioned were the Jacquez, Herbemont, Norton's Virginia, Cynthiana, Cunningham, Rulander, and Black July for direct production, and the different kinds of Riparia, York Madeira, Solonis, Clinton, Vialla, Taylor, and Concord for grafting.

Different ways of grafting were then discussed. These are as well known in America as in France, perhaps even better, as the reporter said that investigations were being actively pursued in America as well as in France, which he trusted would be crowned with success.

As the reporter concluded his very interesting speech, Mr. Bazille, senator from the Herault, took the stand, and mildly reproached the committee with saying that the French Government was opposed to the introduction of American vines into France.

He declared that the superior committee of vigilance, appointed by the government to regulate the matter, permitted the introduction of these vines wherever and whenever an agricultural committee indorsed by the conseil-général of their department asked for the permission.

The honorable senator was one of the most powerful and forcible defenders of American vines before the congress. He said he had planted them on an extensive scale in his own vineyards, destroyed by phylloxera, and he regretted to see his neighbors still hesitate to profit by his success. He treated at length the different kinds of grafting in a very clear manner. His experience was given to the effect that in three years a vineyard could be replaced by American vines; that his wine, which used to bring twenty francs the hectoliter before his French vines had been destroyed, now brought seventy francs; and the cause of the American vine, in his opinion, was gained. He closed by a relation of

a fable of La Fontaine appropriate to his subject, and as he retired he was greeted with prolonged applause.

The next speakers gave their individual experience, showing that whatever may be the variety of the American vine, the resistance to phylloxera was proved, and it constituted a sure remedy for restoring the vineyards.

The Jacquez produce 100 hectoliters to the hectare in the Hérault, but are threatened by anthracnose, said one; but the remedy for this disease is a simple one, and is one kilogram of sulphate of iron to two quarts of water.

As direct producers, the Herbemont is preferred in the Gironde, and produces the best wine, while in the south of France it is the Jacquez, the Norton's Virginia, and Santa Anna. Of vines *indemnes*, the Riparia is preferred; the York Madeira comes after. The Solonis is preferred in rich, moist lands, and the Taylor, Clinton, and Vialla come next.

In 1869 the Society of Agriculture of France commenced to study the phylloxera. Out of 2,500,000 hectares of vines one million were already either destroyed or attacked by phylloxera. Two schools were in presence of each other, one to combat the disease by insecticides, where it can be successfully employed, the other to plant American vines where the other process fails; but the greater part of the lands in France are adapted to receive American vines, and, he added, the grafts of French varieties can be used to preserve the French vines.

Such is the conclusion of the discussion of the third day of the congress.

Different proprietors of vineyards followed in corroboration of these facts. Some contested them and others denied them. The different horticulturists who had *American plants for sale* were opposed to their direct importation from America, on the ground that they introduced the phylloxera, and yet it was not denied that the phylloxera is almost everywhere in France at the present time, that the French vines succumb to it, while the American successfully resist it.

Notwithstanding these painful discussions, which tended to throw discredit on American vines bought in France, it was urged that a special commission be recommended by the congress to examine and report upon the state of the vines in *America* and their power of resistance *at home*. And it is probable that the horticulturists will succeed at the close of the session in passing some such resolution.

The best way, therefore, would seem to be to import American vines hereafter direct from the United States to Bordeaux, and this is probably what will be done, as at least the horticulturists in America cannot be suspected of selling any but genuine American plants for exportation to France.

American vines were then classified according to the facility or difficulty with which they grew here.

First class.—Those of easy growth were the Labruscas, not very resisting. Riparia, unfertile, but resisting.

Second class.—Estivalis, absolutely resisting, bearing fine fruit. Cordifolia, unfertile and resisting.

The Riparia and Cordifolia were therefore cultivated in America only for sale to exporters, to be used as trunks in France on which to graft, and also for the same use in California.

The fourth day had been devoted to the discussion of vines planted in sandy soil; to the three diseases known as mildew, oidium, and anthracnose; but the interest in our American vines, the strong opposition

manifested to them notwithstanding a night session protracted beyond midnight, continued, and another day was devoted to the subject.

Mr. Julien, of Montpellier, testified that he planted in alternate roots American vines, the Jacquez and Riparia grafted, side by side with French vines. The latter had all died, while the Americans grew and flourished in a phylloxera ground.

The various delegates of foreign governments were heard by the congress.

The delegate from the Italian Government testified that in Italy they burn the vines as soon as they perceive that they are attacked by the phylloxera. The York Madeira, he said, was planted in their place, and the Italian Government distributed one hundred kilograms of seed each month, besides offering prizes to those who do the best. The gentleman, who was listened to with great attention, said modestly that this was the *fifty-fourth* congress he had attended.

The delegate from Spain, Mr. Luna, then spoke and said there had been three failures of American vines to one thousand successful plantations of them, and that the hopes in Spain were placed in the American vines. His remarks were warmly applauded.

Another delegate from Spain, Mr. Arevalo, professor of natural history in the University of Valencia, presented a paper in which was described the line of march of phylloxera in its invasion of Spain. The important point discovered by this gentleman was that the insect propagates itself exactly in the opposite direction to the prevailing winds.

Mr. Planchon, professor of the University of Montpellier, considered, perhaps, as the greatest entomologist in France, related his experience in the examination of the relative resistance of American vines, and gave his opinion that "the least resisting among the American vines is more so than the most resisting among the French vines." It will be remembered that Mr. Planchon made an official voyage to the United States in 1874, to study American vines which began to attract the attention of viticulturists soon after his report had been made public.

A gentleman testified that the Viala is the best for grafting, but that the Riparia is the variety which resists the best. Mr. Nardi, of the Var, expressed a desire to have an inquest made in America upon the relative resistance there of vines. An opponent of American vines seconded the preceding motion, and said that the vines were dying in all parts of the United States from phylloxera, and it was folly to have them introduced into France. It seems hardly necessary to multiply instances upon this subject. The congress seemed quite excited on the point.

The remaining topics relating to other maladies of the vines, such as mildew, ordium, and anthracnose, were then treated scientifically by two celebrated professors of natural science. Professor Millharden, of the faculty of sciences of Bordeaux, said that the three were all of the same family, one attacking the leaves, another the branches, and the third the fruit. The remedy was sulphate of iron.

Professor Planchon, of Montpellier, expressed the same opinion. He said the Anthracnose in particular was a disease of *charbon* on the Jacquez, and that a solution, either hot or cold, of sulphate of iron, of 500 grams to a quart of water, applied once with a sponge would be sufficient for several years to relieve the vines.

The plantation of vines in sandy soil was next treated, and it was demonstrated that the vines planted in sand do not appear to suffer from the phylloxera, but that if the roots penetrate into a loamy soil the insect reaches them in that way; or by the sand becoming loamy in course of cultivation.

The Duchess of Fitz James, in her admirable article in the June number of the Revue des Deux Mondes, upon "the American vines in France," gives the following reason for the immunity of vines planted in sand:

In fine sand the phylloxera would be like a mouse which should try to run about among a square yard of broken pieces of stone. The great mobility of the mass would prevent him from passing through, while the mouse could effect a passage through a stone wall rendered even more solid by the adherence of the stones to each other.

The ensuing session of the fourth day was occupied in awarding the gold and silver medals to the exhibitors of chemical remedies and machines for submersion.

Friday, the fifth day, the congress did not sit, in order to allow the members an opportunity in the morning to visit the floating docks and compare the various machines for raising water in cases of submersion. There were only four in all. One was, in particular, very powerful, for, when it started without giving any warning, just after a slight rain had well mixed the coal dust, a hundred of the visitors were made victims and had their eyes filled with black soot and their linen bespotted with mud.

In the afternoon an excursion was arranged for the members from a distance to visit the Chateaux of Margaux and Laffitte, in the Medoc.

The order of the day for the sixth and last day was as follows:

Morning session. Resolutions to be adopted. Conclusions of the congress.

In the afternoon a second excursion to Pomerol for those who wished to see vines diseased and treated with sulphuret of carbon.

Mr. Cournord, a civil engineer, proposed that the syndicates to be established by the new rural code for the defense of the vines against phylloxera should not be obligatory. Adopted.

Then came the great and exciting resolution proposing to admit American vines to a participation of the subsidy until now allowed by the French Government to French vines treated by sulphuret of carbon. After an animated debate—for anything pertaining to this subject seems to act like powder on the congress—the resolution was carried by a large majority, the vote being counted. But previously at least twenty speakers kept up, as it is called, a running fire. Some said the same advantages should be allowed to American vines as to other means. Others rejoined, "No, abolish all subsidies." Still others exclaimed that to abolish all subsidies would discourage the small farmers, who cannot meet the entire expense. "Well," said his neighbor, "then let the government establish nurseries and distribute plants gratuitously." "This cannot be done," said another. Then it was proposed to keep the *statu quo* which allowed aid for insecticides but none for American plants, whereat a general protestation against the discrimination between the two was made at once. A deputy supported the motion to keep the subsidy for insecticides, on account of the small growers. The president then resumed the question; said the subvention was so trifling, when the large tax that is levied on wine was considered—1,500,000 francs subsidy and 400,000,000 francs of revenue income from taxes on wine—that he thought and entreated that the resolution extending the subsidy to American vines might pass, and to all the means of resistance possible to phylloxera. The resolution then passed.

The horticulturists then passed their resolution, as was anticipated, to have a committee appointed to examine the state of resistance of vines at their homes in America.

The usual resolutions of thanks were passed to the president for the impartial way in which he had presided over the deliberations of the

congress, to which he gracefully responded. He then declared the Congress adjourned *sine die*.

The subjoined tables, marked A and B, respectively, will be found of great interest, as showing in a condensed space the condition of the vineyards in France for last year; and the statistics for this year have not yet been made out, but it may be stated on good authority that the reparation of vineyards effected by sulphide of carbon and the planting of American vines has increased enormously since last year.

DR. W. E. JOHNTSON.
G. W. ROOSEVELT,
United States Consul, Bordeaux.
THOMAS P. SMITH,
United States Consular Agent, Cognac.

A.—*Table showing the condition of vineyards in France*, 1880.

Departments.	Area planted with vines.		Extent of vineyards invaded which have not succumbed.	Area of vineyards destroyed by phylloxera.
	Before the malady.	At present.		
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*
Ain	45,000	45,000	650	174
Alpes (Basses)	28,650	23,477	7,558	6,702
Alpes (Hautes)	14,000	15,000	8,250	5,601
Alpes-Maritimes	69,230	69,230	263	17
Ardèche	85,427	38,740	16,437	58,172
Ariège	8,234	8,234	15	5
Aube	208,432	342,500	927	5
Aveyron	64,947	64,947	2,117	175
Bouches-du-Rhône	116,727	28,100	15,000	100,700
Charente	290,512	250,000	10,022	106,100
Charente-Inférieure	422,360	338,992	112,000	101,212
Corrèze	45,000	45,400	312	60
Corse	37,817	35,337	1,330	625
Côte-d'Or	75,000	90,000	241,792	37
Dordogne	196,642	282,332	67,990	30,045
Drôme	96,650	25,042	15,310	66,122
Gard	247,355	32,500	15,520	244,485
Garonne (Haute)	175,000	175,000	22	.....
Gers	245,000	382,000	250	125
Gironde	313,055	425,287	341,190	51,250
Hérault	450,000	212,000	73,700	329,170
Indre	56,472	69,790	150	10
Isère	81,382	75,205	10,501	4,320
Jura	51,862	50,300	15	.....
Landes	67,670	67,670	13	.....
Loir-et-Cher	89,352	95,000	280	8
Loire	39,198	78,065	5,470	2,600
Loire (Haute)	20,000	25,000	100	.....
Loiret	79,925	76,327	75	15
Lot	264,537	205,000	50,025	20,601
Lot-et-Garonne	287,000	287,000	15,000	30,000
Lozère	6,095	4,700	523	210
Puy-de-Dôme	69,500	74,075	79	.....
Pyrénées (Basses)	62,500	62,500	13	.....
Pyrénées (Orientales)	170,000	201,200	6,250	2,500
Rhône	115,065	107,226	26,007	13,622
Saône-et-Loire	111,052	116,250	7,500	750
Savoie	28,125	43,100	362	30
Savoie (Haute)	19,472	19,472	200	.....
Sévres (Deux)	56,203	56,410	10,241	4,600
Tarn	125,000	127,500	100	10
Tarn-et-Garonne	99,950	100,000	3,300	625
Var	225,817	100,940	35,242	125,080
Vaucluse	80,000	9,055	34,025	93,445
Vienne	97,000	97,000	500	.....
Total	5,537,725	5,067,903	1,136,576	1,399,208

B.—*Table showing the condition of vineyards in France*, 1880.

Departments.	Vineyards treated by submersion.	Vineyards treated by sulphide of carbon.	Vineyards treated by sulpho-carbonates.	Vineyards replanted with American vines.
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*
Ain		7		
Alpes (Basses)	45	82	25	25
Alpes (Hautes)		Few trials.		5
Alpes Maritimes		213	3	
Ardèche	20	15	35	220
Ariège				
Aude		300		
Aveyron		5		
Bouches-du-Rhône	6,270	315	75	697
Charente		Few trials.	140	90
Charente-Inférieure		100	75	250
Corrèze		98		
Corse		290		
Côte-d'Or		85	Few trials.	
Dordogne		24	105	35
Drôme	280	200	12	200
Gard	1,338	3,000	15	3,358
Garonne (Haute)		3,975		
Gers		13		
Gironde	7,000	165	525	750
Herault	3,975	9	2,173	6,562
Indre		12	5	
Isère		200		3
Jura		52		
Landes		12		
Loire-et-Cher		100		
Loire	One trial.	50		
Loire (Haute)		65		
Loiret		30		
Lot		20	19	5
Lot-et-Garonne		18	45	15
Lozère		12		5
Puy-de-Dôme		600	8	
Pyrénées (Basses)		675		
Pyrénées (Orientales)		55		
Rhône		70	63	75
Saône-et-Loire		220		
Savoie		150		
Savoie (Haute)		100		
Sèvres (Deux)		75		
Tarn		626		
Tarn-et-Garonne		100		
Var		640	131	3,328
Vaucluse	220	100	70	300
Vienne	1,075	231		
Total	20,203	13,114	3,524	15,918

THE BURGUNDY VINTAGE.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

The just value attached by connoisseurs of wines to the Burgundy vintage, and the important increase of the export to the United States, suggest that I should again this year report to the Department upon the *recolte* of that region lying within my consular jurisdiction. I therefore beg to submit the following upon the wines of Burgundy for 1881.

The summer of the year which is now drawing to a close was for Burgundy remarkably beautiful and dry, and without destructive storms. The temperature in general maintained was about 38° centigrade, reaching occasionally as high as 40° in the shade.

It was expected, under these favorable conditions, that the harvest would be of the same splendid quality as in 1846, 1865, and 1870. This expectation was not disappointed, and it would be more difficult than ever for the savants to convince Burgundian wine-growers that the appearance of a comet, and still more for the reason of two or three com-

ets, that their influence has not been without favor upon the qualities of their crops.

The winter was not too severe, while the spring was favorable to vegetation, but the cold weather at the end of May and in the early days of June caused a falling off.

The result is about half a crop in the most favored regions, the same which in fact has occurred since the abundant year of 1875.

After the great heat several beneficent rains came at the approach of maturity and saved the grape from the burning and destroying ravages which were produced in the exceptionable years noted above. The vintage was made at the propitious moment, an invariable sign for the quality. The grapes without exception were mature and perfect, as if they had been chosen for the table.

Pressing (*la cuvaison*) took place at a warm temperature, and the new wines presented, on being tunned (*au décuvage*) a general *ensemble* rarely realized for the finest qualities—richness of color, purity of flavor, fruity taste, and strength and firmness being the best indications for its conservation and its fine bouquet.

The vines of white grapes produced less than those of the black varieties, but the quality was equally perfect.

The relative quality of ordinary wines are also excellent; unfortunately those of Macon produced but half a crop and those of Beaujolais only a quarter.

In the Côte-d'Or, home and foreign buyers and exporters hastened to secure from the proprietors all they could purchase, and at prices far advanced over those ever before paid for the wines of Burgundy.

These high prices were however no doubt justified, viewing the limited stocks of old wines in store, the small quantity produced, and especially the splendid quality of the new crop.

BENJAMIN F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, France, October 27, 1881.

THE SILK MARKET OF EUROPE.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO.

The business of the silk condition house of Lyons has been very important during September, exceeding by 206,000 kilograms the same month of last year. Eight thousand seven hundred and nineteen bales of silk were conditioned, yielding 598,000 kilograms, of which quantity 491,000 kilograms were of foreign silk.

For the first nine months of the year more than 4,000,000 kilograms have been conditioned, being an increase of 530,000 kilograms, or 15 per cent., compared with the same period in 1880.

The prices of raw silks have maintained the advanced figures which nearly all kinds, and especially Asiatics, took more than a month ago, and, though manufacturers have supplied their present wants, the market continues firm, and is likely, with increased demand, to advance still higher.

It is now definitely ascertained that the China export will not exceed much beyond 55,000 bales, a falling off of nearly 30,000 bales from preceding years.

In spite of the uncertainty which still hangs over the political skies, the character of the approaching extraordinary session of the new chambers, the formation of a new ministry, and the difficulties which seem to still surround the military operations in North Africa, the past fortnight has been one of considerable animation in business and financial circles.

The purchases of silk have been large, and, as above remarked, the business of the condition house is of quite an unexampled activity.

The fact that the purchases have been by manufacturers, and not for account of speculation, shows the healthy state of trade and the importance of the orders already placed for foreign account. Both in the city and surrounding country the looms have been and are occupied to pretty near their full capacity, and the prospect is—from England, America, and elsewhere—exceedingly favorable for continued employment.

Though the market for raw silks has grown quieter for several days, prices remain steady and the tendency is towards a rise. European silks bear about the same figure as they commanded at this time last year.

The worked silks of China continue to be scarce in the Lyons market and such as are required for the moulinage very high; the raw silks of Japan are less sought for.

The Italian markets are in the same favorable disposition, prices firm, and transactions very active.

The London market has been more calm, but the tendency here is also to increased prices; the advance in the Bank of England rate having no doubt contributed somewhat momentarily to the diminution of transactions.

In the extreme Orient the markets are quiet, holders having pretensions which repulse buyers. The export of Japan raw silks for Europe will not exceed, it appears, more than 50,000 bales.

The rival silk manufacturers of Lyons are in full activity; the fabricants of Zurich, in Switzerland, and Crefeld, in Germany, are employed uninterruptedly.

China silks are utilized in particularly large quantities, and no inconsiderable amount of Italian.

BENJAMIN F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, October 26, 1881.

THE SWISS WATCH INDUSTRY.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT DEZEYK, OF ST. GALL.

In face of the continuous rivalry existing between the Swiss and American watch industry, ever since the World's Fair in 1876, it must be of some moment for the American to learn the latest news on the progress of the Swiss watch industry. The opportunities for gathering such information are very propitious, as the national exhibition of watches and the international exhibition of watchmakers' tools and machines are at present taking place at Chaux de Fonds. This comprehensive exhibition has been arranged by 400 of the first firms, and offers undoubtedly the best means to form an impartial judgment in this matter.

For the correctness of my statements I rely principally on the information and figures contained in the official catalogue, published under the control of the "*Société d'Emulation Industrielle*" at Chaux de Fonds, as well as upon the statistical publications and data gathered from former Universal Exhibitions.

It would be well for Americans engaged in the watch industry to visit this exhibition; and should this not be practicable, official catalogues of the same should be procured. These latter are very complete and contain full information concerning Swiss firms dealing in this branch, together with lists of the factories which have attained any importance, and giving full details of their management and of the disposition of their produce.

The French retain the first rank in the manufacture of pendules (drawing-room clocks), but the pocket-watches manufactured in West Switzerland are held to be unsurpassed by any others, not even by the English, who, on the other hand, may fairly boast of the excellence of their marine clocks and chronometers.

Thanks to the perfection of their machinery, the Americans in 1876 were powerful competitors in the manufacture of watches; but at the present writing the Swiss have profited by the lessons drawn from American superiority, and have introduced the machine where they found it could conveniently be done. The Swiss have, moreover, the advantage of three important details over their competitors, viz, an artistic turn of hand, cultivated through generations; the traditions and the business connections throughout the whole world, and an untiring diligence and desire for improvement. They surpassed the Americans in the Paris exhibition and in the exhibition at Melbourne (1880–'81). They have given fresh proofs that they still maintain the highest rank. The following figures prove clearly the above facts, and at this later exhibition the watches selected for examination by the jury were submitted to a minute examination during thirty-one days in different temperatures and positions in the astronomical observatory at Melbourne. Taking a maximum standard of 500 points, the following results were obtained:

	Points.
1. Switzerland (collectively)	500
2. England	495
3. Switzerland (collectively)	490
4. England	480
5. Switzerland (collectively)	480
6. Unknown	475
7. Germany	470
8. Switzerland (collectively)	465
9. England	460
10. Switzerland	455
11. England	450
12. Switzerland (collectively)	445
13. England	440
14. Germany	435
15. Waltham (watch company)	430
17. Waltham (watch company)	420
25. Waltham (watch company)	380
28. Waltham (watch company)	365
33. Waltham (watch company)	340
36. Waltham (watch company)	325

Thus the best American watch took the fifteenth rank, that is to say the third following the last Swiss watch; each country being allowed to bring six watches into competition. The six Swiss watches obtained in the average 472.5 points, the American 367.7 points.

This result, as regards regulation accompanied by the commendatory remarks of the jury for artificial execution, has given, in the general notice, to the Swiss watches 905 points, a figure attained by no other exhibitor.

The Swiss watch industry having thus obtained this highest distinction at this exhibition, it has been conclusively proved to the Americans that even the most perfect machine is only at best an auxiliary for good hand-work, which latter must always win in the long run. It would, therefore, be advisable that in addition to the perfection of machinery and working utensils, they should henceforth lay more stress upon the formation and development of the artistic hand-work and intelligence of their workmen.

Observatories are established for the special benefit of the watch industry at Geneva and Neufchatel; the former was already founded in 1760, and has maintained steadily a reputation for the superiority of its instruments and for its organization. It controls the movements of the chronometers confided to its observation at different temperatures and in different positions; it publishes the results obtained in a bulletin, and it arranges under the superintendence of the "Society of Arts" annually a "*concours de chronomètres*" and gives by means of electricity the exact time to all the watchmakers' shops at Geneva. The observatory at Neufchatel was established in 1850, as a cantonal institution according to the plans of the astronomer Dr. Hirsch, and is performing the same task, in the same manner, for all the centers of watch manufacture in the canton (Chaux de Fonds, Locle, Ponts, Fleurier, Neufchatel, &c).

The directors, Dr. Plantamour at Geneva, and Dr. Hirsch at Neufchatel, publish each year an exact report on the regulated pocket-watches, chronometers, and marine clocks. The following interesting results are selected from their statements.

Total number of the pocket-chronometers presented at the *concours* in the two observatories, 2,608; diurnal variation medium, 0^s.611; deviation of movement in different positions, 2^s.055; deviation of movement at a change of 1° in the temperature, 0^s.146.

For the ten marine chronometers in the observatory at Neufchatel, the the medium of diurnal variation: 0^s.213; deviation of movement at change of 1° in the temperature: 0^s.061.

Schools for watchmakers are at present established at Geneva, Chaux de Fonds, St. Imier, Bienne, Neufchatel, Fleurier, and recently at Soleure.

The school at Geneva was founded in 1826 by the Society of Arts, and in 1842 it was taken possession of by the city. It has a yearly budget of 48,000 francs, from which about 4,000 francs are deducted. Each pupil from the city pays 5 francs and outsiders pay 20 francs per month as school money. The school at Chaux de Fonds opened in 1865 and has yearly expenditures of 20,000 francs. The school money amounts to 15 francs for citizens and to 25 francs for foreigners whose parents do not reside in Switzerland. The school at Locle opened in 1868 and spends annually 24,500 francs. Its monthly receipts from each native pupil are 30 francs and from foreigners just the same amount, in addition to 100 francs entrance money. Similar financial proportions exist in the other schools at St. Imier, Bienne, Neufchatel, and Fleurier.

The pupils are received in these schools passed their fourteenth year, and must remain for four years and a half. They first enter for one year the class for "*Ebauchés*" for raw work, where they learn first the manufacturing of the single chief component parts, then they pass nine months in the class for mounting the wheel-works, and an equal period

in the class for the winding up and for the repeaters. The next year is devoted to the study of the escapements and the last year to the final revision. Besides the practical hand-work, the study of mathematics, machinery, drawing, and physics constitute the chief branches of instruction, and the professors are aided in their teachings by the best models.

The proper artistic education of the pupils is also provided for by a special technical school at Chaux de Fonds, in which there are from 150 to 200 pupils especially devoted to the art of decorating, which, as above observed, is very important for the watch industry.

ORGANIZATION OF THE WORK.

No other industry in the world has such a fixed system for regulating its work as the Swiss watch manufactures. About sixty different masters are occupied with the manufacture of the different parts of each single watch, in such a way that each workman manufactures, throughout the year, the same pieces, as, for example, the hands, or certain wheels, &c.; and by this means the workmen attain a peculiar ability in their special branch. In a like manner they have metamorphosed their simple and almost primitive tools into most complicated machinery, and their ability to perform work is enormous both as to quality and quantity. They work generally at home, with the help of the members of their family, and then sell the finished component parts to the big manufacturers, under whose superintendence the watch is completed. Although these different parts are procured from different shops they nevertheless exactly fit together, because they are made after one and the same number, measure, and rule. The workmen earn 5 francs 15 centimes per day, according to the branch they are engaged in and to the run of the business; and in nearly every house of the region where watches are made may be found a special working shop. Large manufacturers are not frequent; the largest are employed in preparing the rougher metal works, such as the turning of the screws, &c.

STATISTICS.

The Swiss watch industry occupies at present about 70,000 persons, who mostly inhabit Chaux de Fonds, Locle, St. Croix (Joux Valée), Travers, Neufchatel, Geneva, St. Imier, Bienne, Môtiers, Soleure, and nearly all the towns situated in the Jura region. The production cannot be estimated quite exactly, because much of the raw and manufactured material is exported, especially to France, and enormous quantities of watches are smuggled into all countries.

In addition to the foregoing, the watches vary much in price according to the execution and the metal. The estimates are about two thirds of silver and one-third of gold watches in Chaux de Fonds; in Geneva, however, eleven-twelfths of the watches manufactured are of gold and only one-twelfth of silver; so that it would be impossible to state any precise sum. The silver watch cases are mostly made in the Jura regions of the canton of Berne, especially in Bienne, in which town a single establishment furnishes 10,000 pieces per month; the gold cases are manufactured only in the large centers of industry, at Geneva, Chaux de Fonds, Locle, &c., for which they generally employ 14-carat gold, instead of 18, which has proved to be less suitable for the purpose.

The watch cases are examined as to their exact value in special controlling offices, where they are stamped. The number of the cases controlled annually averages half a million pieces. The whole production,

including those sent abroad, amounted to at least one million of pieces, which represents the total value of about 100,000,000 of francs.

A. J. DEZEYK,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
St. Gall, September 26, 1881.

SWISS EXPORTS OF ANILINE COLORS TO THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON.

The principal articles of export from the consular district of Basle and its dependency, the agency at Berne, are silk ribbons, watches, cheese, aniline colors, silk tissues, and miscellaneous articles (mainly straw and cotton goods and wood carvings).

A comparison of the exports of these articles during the months of July and August, 1881, with those of the same two months in 1880, exhibits the following results:

	July and August, 1880.	July and August, 1881.	Comparison.	
	Francs.	*Francs.*		*Francs.*
Silk ribbons	3,931,861.60	2,384,146.61	Decrease,	1,547,714.79
Watches	1,520,462.86	1,679,935.55	Increase,	159,472.69
Cheese	359,585.40	357,215.59	Decrease,	2,369.81
Aniline colors	102,651.91	132,710.53	Increase,	30,058.62
Silk tissues	147,716.15	76,115.15	Decrease,	71,601.00
Miscellaneous	132,468.25	138,120.25	Increase,	5,652.00
Total	6,194,746.17	4,768,243.68		

Net decrease, 1,426,503 francs; net decrease in United States gold, $275,315.

The shipment of ribbons, watches, and colors is now very active, with a prospect of unusually heavy business during the autumn months.

Attention is respectfully invited to the steady and significant increase in the export of aniline colors, a trade which began only a few months ago, but grows with each succeeding report.

Aniline colors are rapidly supplanting nearly all other dyeing materials used in coloring silk, cotton, woolen, and straw goods. They will form a constantly increasing item of expense to the United States until American enterprise and chemical skill shall combine to utilize the unlimited supply of aniline materials now annually wasted in the fumes of coal tar and the refuse of petroleum refineries.

It is in evidence that the suggestions heretofore offered on this subject have been noted by some American capitalists, and that preparations are now in progress to begin the manufacture of aniline colors on a large scale at several points in the United States. Their immediate success will depend in a great measure upon the degree to which they utilize the methods and processes already in use among the leading European manufacturers. Aniline chemistry is an abstruse but profitable and rapidly progressive science. American manufacturers should spare no effort to begin as nearly as possible at the point of progress which the German, Swiss, and French chemists have already attained.

FRANK H. MASON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Basle, September 3, 1881.

THE GOLD-FIELDS OF NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

The prospects of the gold-fields of New Zealand are brighter than they have been for many years. New discoveries of the metal are reported almost every day.

The average yield of the mines for several years has been about $5,000,000 per annum, and the total value of the exports of gold from the colony since the year 1857 amounted to $183,631,410.

Indeed, with the exception of Victoria, none of the other Australasian colonies have produced so great a quantity of gold as New Zealand.

It is interesting to trace the history of the mines of this colony since gold became an article of export in the year 1857.

The following table shows the quantity and value of gold exported from New Zealand for each year since that time:

Value of gold exported from the colony of New Zealand for each year from 1857 *to* 1880.

1857	$202,210 00	1870	$10,787,925 00
1858	262,215 00	1871	13,937,600 00
1859	142,135 00	1872	8,654,960 00
1860	87,925 00	1873	9,937,125 00
1861	5,763,285 00	1874	7,526,655 00
1862	7,956,945 00	1875	7,038,850 00
1863	12,158,615 00	1876	6,342,795 00
1864	9,289,235 00	1877	7,480,400 00
1865	11,132,370 00	1878	6,200,395 00
1866	14,222,585 00	1879	5,993,205 00
1867	13,501,375 00	June 30, 1880	2,996,000 00
1868	12,521,630 00		
1869	11,814,975 00	Total	183,631,410 00

No one has as yet published a systematic history of the discovery of gold in New Zealand, but the first discovery was probably made in the province of Auckland. It is impossible to say now who was its discoverer or in what quantities it was found in the year preceding the occupation of the island as a British colony. For many years after the occupation of Australia by Britain, New Zealand was visited by masters of trading vessels thence for the purpose of carrying on trade with the Maories.

The whaling vessels that frequented these seas in the period from 1770 (the date of Captain Cook's visit) to 1840, when New Zealand was formally constituted a British colony, helped to make known the fiber called New Zealand flax (*Phormium tenax*) and the valuable timber which its forests contained for spars and ship-building purposes.

When regular settlement was begun in Australia, in 1788, the intercourse with New Zealand began to increase, and in course of time the merchants at Sydney, then called Botany Bay, sent agents with their vessels for the purpose of residing on the islands to gather produce from the natives, and to extend the trade. Many of these agents were shrewd and unscrupulous men, and no doubt in their travels from one native settlement to another made many valuable discoveries. Be this as it may, the trade with the Maories was respectable, and rapidly extended. Not a few of the earliest agents were men who had deserted from whaling ships, who had visited the islands and lived with the Maories, wedded Maori wives, and thus became the principal advisers of the Maori chiefs with whom they lived, and the medium of intercourse with the vessels visiting the coasts. The exact date of the

first discovery of gold is not known, but Erape, a traveler who visited the district of the Bay of Islands, and other places, some time between 1830 and 1840, reported the existence of gold in the Thames River district (then known as the Waikon). It can only be conjectured whether gold was washed out of the beds of the creeks in those days and taken to Sydney, but in 1852 gold was found in placers by Mr. Frederick Ring, in the Driving Creek, Coromandel, although the export returns kept by the customs authorities date no further back than 1857.

From that date up to a few years ago there was a heavy export duty on gold, so that there were many inducements to smuggle gold out of the colony without reporting it at the customs. The rich gold discoveries made in Victoria in 1853 diverted for a time full attention from the Coromandel gold discoveries, but from 1862 mining gold-bearing quartz has been a regular industry there.

Two or three years before this last-named date, rumors were current that shepherds in the ranges and inland districts of Otago had found occasional specks of gold in certain streams; but little attention was given to the matter up to 1862 or 1863, when alluvial gold was found in payable quantities. A rush set in for Australia, and the area of gold-bearing country was rapidly extended. These discoveries tended to divert attention once more from the gold-bearing quartz at Coromandel, as gold that could be washed out of mud and shingle, as in Otago, presented a more tempting field of operations than taking it from the quartz lode. In a short time afterwards, about 1865, gold was discovered on the west coast of the South Island, about Hokitika and the Grey River, and another rush set in. The auriferous deposit was traced to Nelson Province, and the richness of these discoveries kept the public attention confined to them.

Simultaneously with these discoveries in the south, the Maori war raged in this district, and as all the gold discoveries then made were on native lands, the prospect of searching for gold in the north was not encouraging.

At the close of the Maori war in the Waikato district, great stagnation of trade prevailed, and the then provincial government passed an act offering a reward of £5,000 for the discovery of a gold-bearing district that would give profitable employment to a certain number of people for a certain period of time. The cupidity of the Maori chiefs was aroused, and the Chief Taipari sent samples of gold and gold-bearing quartz found upon his land to the government. The result was that on the 1st of August, 1867, a proclamation was issued declaring that certain prescribed territory, the property of Taipari, was open for gold prospecting to Europeans.

On the 17th of August, Hunt and party found gold in a ledge of quartz that crossed the Kuranui Creek, and this discovery, which was afterward known as Hunt's Shotover mine, made the four original members of the party very wealthy. Discoveries followed each other in rapid succession until an enormous rush set in, and in a few months upwards of 15,000 persons were profitably employed in the district. One mine alone, the Caledonian, distributed among its shareholders within a few months over £600,000 sterling in dividends. The shares, which originally cost £12, ran up in value to £210, at which price they readily changed hands. The alluvial diggings, once so rich in the South Island, are now worked out, and the principal work carried on there is quartz-mining at Auckland.

In the month of February, 1862, two California miners, Hartley and

Reilly, made a prospecting tour up the Molyneux River, and found gold to such an extent that, as they said themselves, "We had only to the cradle at the edge of the river and keep it going from morning till night." They brought to Dunedin over 1,000 ounces of gold, and the provincial government gave them a bonus of £2,000 sterling for making known the locality of their discovery.

The west coast district of the province of Canterbury is one vast gold-field.

In regard to the gold-fields of Otago, Dr. Hector, the colonial geologist, is of the opinion that the deposits are similar to those occurring in basins upon the western slope of the Rocky Mountains of North America, descending from an elevation of 5,000 feet almost to the sea level, and extending from California northward into British Columbia.

Vast sums of money have been expended in Otago in bringing water from distant streams. The races are often forty miles in length, winding around hillsides which are often tunneled, or carried across gullies by flumes or pipes. By means of the water the face of the working is washed down, and all the soil carried away, leaving the stones behind, which must be removed, and the gold, being the heaviest metal and in very small particles, is gathered with the refuse dirt at the bottom and carefully separated by a process of washing.

The gold-fields secretary, in his report read before parliament last session, says:

> The Thames gold-field, which is much the most important quartz-mining district in New Zealand, has rallied very materially during the last few months from a former state of depression.

The question of the big pump has been settled; more machinery has been set up; tunnels are being extended into new country by means of drills driven by compressed air; and the yield of gold, according to latest returns, is on the increase. Several of the mining companies conduct operations on a large scale, and their arrangements evince great enterprise, skill, and confidence in the future of the field.

As an example of the enterprise displayed in the search for gold on this field the workings of the Moanatairi mine may be cited. The mining inspector states:

> The main tunnel runs into the hills from the beach, in a northeast direction, for a distance of 1,300 feet. The principal works during the year have been the driving of two main cross-cuts from this tunnel in a southerly direction. The first of these has now been driven for a distance of 225 feet, in order to prospect the lower levels of the reefs which formerly gave handsome returns in the upper levels of the Nonpareil and Waitemata mines; but a further distance of 1,000 feet has yet to be driven before cutting these reefs. The second cross-cut was driven from near the present end of the main tunnel for a distance of 450 feet, when a large reef 20 feet in thickness was tapped. In driving these cross-cuts, rock-drills were used, driven by compressed air.
>
> During the year, 3,145 square fathoms have been worked out on the various reefs and leaders, giving 10,926 tons of quartz, which, when crushed, yielded 14,312 ounces of gold. There has also been 1,230 feet of tunneling or driving done within the same time, giving employment on the average to about 170 men.
>
> The return from the quartz and cement mining for the twelve months ending the 31st March, 1880, are:

	Tons of quartz crushed.	Ounces of gold.
Auckland:		
Coromandel	1,296	5,190
Thames	33,017	59,575
West Coast:		
Reefton	28,062	18,090
Greymouth	150	not given.
Not named	320	105

	Tons of quartz crushed.	Ounces of gold.
Otago:		
Clyde	6,743	4,197
Arrow	4,615	4,317
Shippers'	660	220
Hindon (estimate)	850	640
	75,713	*92,344
Lawrence (estimate from cement)		23,000
From quartz and cement		115,344

*From quartz.

According to the report of the secretary of the gold-fields, the number of miners on the 31st March, 1880, was 14,409. The number for 1879 was 14,297. The mean number for the year ending 31st March, 1880, is therefore 14,353. The gold exported for the same period was valued at $7,544,115, or on an average of $405 as the year's earnings per man. For the previous year the average was $377.50. Of course, the cost and maintenance of private water-races, crushing-machinery, and other plant have to be borne by the miner, so that the average wages per man are below the current rate for labor in the colony. It is not to be inferred, however, that the miners are solely dependent on gold or give all their time to its search; many of them, more especially those having alluvial claims, combine farming and the rearing of cattle with mining pursuits, and only engage in the latter at certain seasons of the year.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, New Zealand, 1881.

THE CROPS OF BADEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH.

I have the honor to report that I have made extensive inquiries and personal observations regarding the result of the harvesting and the condition of the unharvested crops of my district.

WINE.

I find that the extreme cold winter of 1880–'81 affected the vines less than the cold weather of the previous winter, and that the extremely favorable weather experienced during the blooming in the spring-time has advanced the fruit in its growth so that more than an average crop can be expected.

The anticipation of more than an excellent quality of wine has been discouraged by the cold rains of the last three weeks, such rains being noxious to the quality of the wine.

Should the weather of this month prove favorable, wine of a better quality than that of the last five years will be produced; should it continue cold, the quantity and quality will be a medium one.

The prices of wine continue high, and will not at present be affected by the prospect of this year's good and plentiful growth.

The quantity is not yet determined, and will not be brought to market

this year, even should the most favorable anticipation be realized. The scarcity of the crop of French wines, owing to the ravages of the phylloxera, will induce a greater demand for German wines.

The prices of the leading wines are from 80 pfennigs to 5 marks white wines, and 1.50 to 6 marks red wines.

HOPS.

The new crop of 1881 is not a full one, either in Baden or throughout Germany. A full crop in Germany is about 600,000 cwt.

This year the yield will not be more than one-half that amount. The proportion for Baden will be this year about 3,500 cwt. The crop was gathered and housed during the last month under great difficulties, occasioned by the constant heavy rains during that period, rendering the drying almost impossible; yet the quality is generally good, although the appearance of the outside of the blossom has been injured by its wet condition while drying.

Prices from the commencement of picking to the present time range from 100 to 135 marks per cwt., according to quality and condition of dryness and appearance. Future prices will depend very much on the foreign demand.

Crops of potatoes, wheat, and barley are plentiful and good. The prices are, potatoes, 7–8 marks per 100 kilograms; wheat, 25–26 marks per 100 kilograms; barley, 20–21 marks per 100 kilograms.

Turnips, vegetables, corn, and oats were not plentiful; but good.

The crop of hay is very limited and poor, the extreme dry weather of the spring-time affecting it badly.

TOBACCO.

The large prices received for tobacco during the last two years has stimulated the production to at least 20 per cent. more than the product of previous years. The early growth of the plant was retarded by the great heat and drought, a circumstance favorable to the wine crop. Until the 1st of August the crop was in danger, but with the aid of August and September rains the plants developed rapidly, resulting in longer leaves and better quality than the product of many years. The crop is good for the manufacture of cigars, smoking tobacco, and snuff. Prices, 46 to 58 marks per cwt. The season has been one favorable to fruit of all kinds, especially apples. Prices, 5 to 10 marks per cwt.

EDWARD M. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Mannheim, October 3, 1881.

FOOD PRICES IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL SCHOENLE, OF GIESTEMUNDE-BREMERHAVEN.

The fact that the cost of the necessaries of life has almost invariably increased in ratio with the increase of import duties on household articles cannot be argued away by German economists, and this fact remains suspended like the sword of Damocles over all economical and social relations in the German Empire. These high prices, put in juxtaposition

with the low rates of wages, are very acutely felt by the laboring classes, and to pull through these hard times is a very difficult task for them.

The following comparative statement of the prices of the necessaries of life, compiled by the chamber of commerce at Bothum, Westphalia, shows that the prices of almost every article for family use have increased since the adoption of the German tariff laws. The prices are given in marks and pfennigs per kilogram.

Articles.	May 1, 1879.	May 1, 1881.	1881.	
			Increase.	Decrease.
Butter	220	240	20	
Beans	29	34	5	
Pease	29	34	5	
Coffee, raw medium Java	220	220		
Wheat flour	32	36	4	
Rape oil	67	65		2
Petroleum	19	24	5	
Rice	36	36		
Bacon:				
Westphalian	130	160	30	
American	100	120	20	
Ham, raw	170	175	5	
Lard	90	130	40	
Soap:				
Soft	44	40		4
Hard	56	56		
Sugar, refined	96	92		4
Potatoes	8	6		2
Rye bread	14	20	6	
Mixed bread (half rye and half wheat)	20	27	7	

It will be seen by the foregoing table that the increase of the price in petroleum, lard, and bacon is very considerable, just in those articles upon which high import duties have been laid, and also in bread, owing to the import duty on flour. Sugar and potatoes have not been affected by the new tariff law, as the duties on sugar remain unchanged, and potatoes enter free of duty. Most of the bacon, and especially lard, was imported from the United States.

When we regard the fact that the laboring classes of Germany have to work hard from one year to another to procure for themselves and their families the necessaries of life, the accumulation of small savings for "a rainy day" is of rare occurrence. Thus it is not to be wondered at that every year hundreds of thousands turn their back on their native land and seek better earnings and *cheaper* as well as *substantial* living in the United States, and that the Socialistic agitation will, in spite of all restrictive and prohibitory laws, not come to a halt and rest.

WOLFGANG SCHOENLE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Barmen, October 28, 1881.

PRODUCTS AND TRADE OF CAIBARIEN, CUBA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL-AGENT FORD.

Caibarien, the seaport of the jurisdiction of Remedios, has, according to the last census (1877), a population of 5,371. The streets are straight,

running north, south, east, and west, but unpaved; the houses are generally built of wood, and roofed with tiles made in the country; a few good dwellings are constructed of stone, and all are but one story high. There are four good stone warehouses (for the storing of sugar), which have a capacity for holding 20,000 hogsheads. There are also good wharves, the water being from 6 to 7 feet deep where the lighters are loaded to convey sugar and molasses to Key Francis, at which point the vessels anchor. As there are only 9 feet of water between the two places, all the labor of receiving and discharging cargo is necessarily done at Key Francis, fifteen miles distant from Caibarien. The latitude of the former place is 22° 38′ 18″ north, longitude 72° 52′ west of Cadiz.

There is no light-house or light of any kind at the entrance of this key; the number of vessels entering with cargoes last year being 111, of which number 62 were under the American flag, aggregating 27,253 tons, and taking away cargoes consisting of 29,205 hhds., 316 tierces, and 419 boxes of sugar, 5,852 hhds. 609 tierces molasses, and 453 hhds. 53 tierces of melado, amounting to $2,429,283,96; the number of vessels of all other nationalities, 49, carrying 11,794 hhds. 175 tierces of sugar, 1,161 hhds. 109 tierces molasses, and 1,218 hhds. and 47 tierces melado, aggregating 21,511 tons, amounting to $1,099,240.40; total exports in American and foreign vessels amounting to $3,528,524.36. All the direct imports from the United States consist of cooperage, lumber, and a few cargoes of coals, amounting to $136,432.44; all other articles are brought from Havana, excepting two or three cargoes of provisions brought from New York, and due to the influence of the writer, as the retail merchants are men of small capital and have no business status in the United States, they being unable to pay cash for a cargo of general merchandise.

The dry-goods are all of English, French, and Spanish manufacture. Wines, olives, oils, onions, boots and shoes from Spain; beer, rice, crockery, and glassware from England. Tasajo (dried beef), from Buenos Ayres, is an article used in great quantities on the sugar plantations, the price at wholesale being 11½ cents per pound, and preferred by the negroes to fresh beef. I would here call the attention of our Texas cattle-dealers to the importance of this trade; by persistent efforts in this direction, they could in cutting and packing be able soon to control the market, as they could afford to lay it down here much cheaper than it can be brought from Buenos Ayres. Lard, hardware, Irish potatoes, canned goods, beans, provisions, illuminating oils, stationery, Yankee notions, small lots of flour, and furniture of all kinds are from the United States.

The climate is healthy and free from yellow fever, except when brought by vessels from Havana or Matanzas, for which reason vessels prefer this port to any other in Cuba. During the summer season we have here, as in all tropical countries, some small-pox, and during the rainy season the local fever, calentura.

The department of Remedios is divided into the following jurisdictions:

	Population.
City of Remedios	14,641
Village of Caibarien	5,371
Town of Camajuany	7,831
Town of Guaracabulla	3,514
Town of Jaguajaya	4,380
Town of Tajuayabon	12,922
Total	48,659

All the above come under the province of Santa Clara, and each has an alcalde or mayor, who is responsible to the governor-civil at Santa Clara. At Caibarien we have a collector of customs and a commandant of marines, who is also a captain of the port; all other civil authorities reside at Remedios, the judge of first instance being the judge of both criminal and civil courts, and the notary—a very important man by the way, as nothing is valid that is not made on stamped paper and acknowledged before him.

The tobacco crop ranks next in importance to sugar in this department, the greater part of which is raised in the jurisdictions of Caunajuany and Tajuayabon, amounting to 48,000 or 50,000 tierces (bales); the tobacco as a rule is sold in the ground before being gathered, to parties in Havana, who ship it to the latter place, and from there send the first quality to the United States and the second to Germany. I would suggest to our tobacco merchants the importance of this crop. By sending out men familiar with the different classes of tobacco and a knowledge of the Spanish language, they could control this growing industry with very little labor; the tobacco could be shipped to the United States in vessels carrying cargoes of sugar at very much lower rates than those demanded at Havana. *Miel de abija* (honey) is produced in large quantities and is all sold in Havana and Cardenas. Efforts have been frequently made to start a direct trade with the United States in this article, but in each case the returns have been unsatisfactory, hardly enough to pay expenses.

Cattle are very scarce in consequence of the civil war, which began in 1868 and ended in 1878, but broke out again in 1879, lasting one year, but during the past two years great efforts have been made to increase the number by careful attention, and also by free importation. Living in Cuba is said to exceed in cost five times that of old Spain; and, in some future report, I will give you a fair estimate of prices in detail which will prove the truth of the above assertion. The laboring class of people live entirely on rice, plantains, and fish, which is found abundantly along the coast and around the different keys. *Aguardiente de caña* (rum) is made here in great quantities, though but little of it has been exported, strangely enough, as it is absolutely pure and preferable to whisky. The time for clearing cane and planting new begins directly after the crop is finished, about the first of May. This work is performed by the *patrocinados* (slaves); but a very serious problem is before the planter now in regard to labor, as by an act passed by the Spanish Cortes in 1880, freeing all slaves in eight years from that date; also requiring the master to pay the slave $3 per month in gold for his labor, besides providing for him as formerly, at the close of 1887 the negro will be free, and the time of the Chinese being already expired and the Chinese authorities refusing to allow the importation of coolies, the planter is naturally looking around to find some kind of labor to replace these two elements, as experience has taught him that the negro, free, will not work on the plantation, but will at once migrate to the cities and become a vagrant, beggar, or thief.

CLARENCE C. FORD,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
San Juan de los Remedios, October 21, 1881.

THE STUTTGART CONSERVATORY OF MUSIC.

REPORT BY CONSUL CATLIN, OF STUTTGART.

Stuttgart has been described by one of its most ardent admirers as "a city of music and flowers." Certainly in respect to its musical characteristics the term is not inapt, for Stuttgart is nothing if not musical. Its professors have long ranked high upon the lists of European instructors, its manufacturers of pianos, organs, and other instruments are known the world over, its well-trained military bands are famous throughout Germany, and its Conservatory of Music has largely contributed to elevating the standard of musical art and educating that wonderful love of harmony so peculiarly inherent in the German race.

The Stuttgart Conservatory was founded in April, 1857, under the name of the "Stuttgart School of Music." Its founder was Prof. Dr. Sigmund Lebert, who succeeded in inducing nine other distinguished musicians to give their support and active assistance in carrying out his plan for the advancement of musical culture in Wurtemberg. Aided by Prof. Dr. Ludwig Stark, he prepared the celebrated Stuttgart piano method, and with this the school commenced its work, the faculty, consisting of Professors Lebert, Stark, Faisst, Pischek, Boch, Debuysère, Gantter, Keller, Levi, and Speidel. The branches taught were piano, organ, violin, violoncello, harmony and composition, elementary singing, chorus singing, solo singing, æsthetics, history of music, and the Italian language.

AN IMPORTANT CHARACTERISTIC

of the institution, as distinguished from other existing schools, was its division into artist and amateur classes, a division which has been adhered to up to the present day. This arrangement was deemed necessary, as conducive to the musical cultivation of the masses, and to the welfare of the school, it being hardly probable that any institution for the education of artists exclusively could hold its own against the then flourishing conservatories in Leipsic, Vienna, and Berlin. But by this means its influence was gradually extended through its amateurs; a taste for good music was being improved; a desire to excel was being awakened; amateurs in time entered the artists' class, and the excellence of the new piano method, the extraordinary ability of Faisst in organ instruction, and the force and perspicuity of his method on harmony and composition being fully established, the school not only held its own, but advanced steadily and sturdily until it left its contemporary rivals far behind.

Another characteristic of the school was the arrangement of the lessons in each of the two classes. In most other institutions each teacher was appointed to give a fixed number of lessons in a week, no matter how great or small the number of his scholars, so that often as many as six or seven were obliged to share an hour's lesson, and under circumstances would not be called upon to play their separate exercises for days and weeks at a time, unless they took private lessons (which they were expected to do). In the "Stuttgart Music School" this unsatisfactory arrangement was obviated by giving each scholar his or her two or three weekly half-hour lessons regularly and alone. Exceptions to this rule were made in the case of harmony instruction, (which was given in classes

not exceeding a convenient number of members), in chorus singing, and in the theoretical branches.

THE NUMBER OF SCHOLARS

during the first year was over 60, 16 of whom belonged to the artists' class. In the second year, the number having increased to over 160, it was found necessary to engage three or four additional teachers. Among others Prof. Dionys Pruckner, of Munich, was engaged for the piano. In the third year the pupils numbered 270, and the original building was found inadequate for the accommodation of the thriving institution. In the fourth year the number of pupils had increased to 330, and this continued to be the average attendance, with a slight increase, up to the tenth anniversary (1867) when the statistics of the conservatory exhibited the following results:

Country.	No. of artists.	No. of amateurs.	Total.
Stuttgart	24	193	217
Other parts of Wurtemberg	14	22	36
Baden	14	2	16
Bavaria	7	6	13
Hesse	1	2	3
Saxe-Weimar	2		2
Prussia	3	1	4
Austria	2	2	4
Switzerland	13	7	20
Holland		3	3
England	3	10	13
Russia	3	4	7
North America	3	4	7
South America	2		2
Total	91	256	347

Of these 260 were females and 87 males.

The statistics of the past four years are as follows:

Country.	1877–'78.	1878–'79.	1879–'80.	1880–'81.
Stuttgart	374	365	362	366
Other parts of Wurtemberg	39	42	44	42
Baden	24	25	14	19
Bavaria	10	4	8	11
Hesse	3	4	4	3
Prussia	20	26	16	21
Other German states	5	7	7	5
Austria	1	4	1	2
Switzerland	25	23	17	20
France	3	1	1	1
Great Britain	80	84	54	41
Russia	10	13	11	13
North America	60	64	58	54
East Indies	6	7	4	5
South America	2			1
Australia	1	2		
Roumania		2	2	1
Norway		1	2	
Greece		1	1	1
Spain		1	1	1
Holland				1
Total	663	676	607	610

Division of classes.

	1877–'78.	1878–'79.	1879–'80.	1880–'81.
Artist class	218	222	186	185
Amateur class	445	454	421	425
Total	663	676	607	610
Male teachers	40	37	37	39
Female teachers	4	4	3	3
Total	44	41	40	42

The branches now taught are—

I. *Vocal music.*—Elementary singing, chorus singing, solo and dramatic singing.

II. *Piano.*—Piano solo, ensemble music, piano instruction under the supervision of a teacher.

III. *Organ.*—Organ solo (practiced upon the large organ in the school and later upon the church organs); the construction and treatment of the organ (demonstrated theoretically and practically by lectures).

IV. *Violin.*—Solo and ensemble.

V. *Violoncello.*—Solo and ensemble.

VI. *Wind instruments.*—Flute, hautbois, clarionet, bassoon, horn, &c.

VII. *Composition.*—Harmony, form, counterpoint, instrumentation, score playing.

VIII. *History of music.*—Lectures.

IX. *Esthetics.*—History of art and literature, lectures.

X.—*Declamation.*

XI.—*The Italian language.*

Of the above the greatest stress is laid upon piano, organ, and composition, and it is claimed that in these three branches the Stuttgart Conservatory ranks highest among existing schools.

Piano instruction is imparted according to the method of Lebert and Stark by the following celebrated doctors and professors of music, viz:

Prof. Dr. SIGMUND LEBERT.—He was educated in Prague, and became an excellent player. But his association with Liszt and his earnest desire to improve and modernize the method of piano instruction led him to the discovery of the principles upon which the present method is based. With the assistance of Prof. Dr. Starke the work was prepared and introduced as the basis of piano instruction in the conservatory. At the present time it exists in four languages (German, English, French, and Italian), has reached the ninth edition, and is employed in numerous schools and conservatories in Europe and America. The main features of the method (*i. e.*, the acquirement of perfect independence in each individual finger, and the accomplishment of every technical movement with the finger alone, independently of the hand, or with the hand and wrist independently of the arm) are not new; but the consistency and skill with which the exercises are constructed and arranged, and the persistent, rigorous manner of their application, combined with the keenest discretion and sagacity in the choice of musical literature for the advancing scholar, are what have caused this method to create an epoch in the history of didactic works for the piano. Dr. Lebert himself is, without doubt, one of the greatest living instructors in this branch, and honestly deserves the admiration and esteem of his pupils, as well as the

grateful commendation of the musical world at large. Liszt is his special friend and an outspoken patron of his method.

Prof. DIONYS PRUCKNER, chamber virtuoso, &c., a favorite pupil of Liszt's, and a very celebrated pianist, ranking in many respects as high as Rubinstein. He visited America about ten years ago, and excited deep admiration and wonder among the few who heard him; owing to his retiring disposition, he was, however, less successful than he merited.

Prof. WILHELM KRÜGER, court virtuoso, &c., born 1820 in Stuttgart. One of the most brilliant of modern pianists. Spent a great part of his life in Paris, where he played with great success, and whence he made an occasional tour through Germany. His numerous piano compositions are universally known and admired.

Professor LEVI, an excellent pianist and an experienced instructor.

Professor ALWENS, a former pupil of the conservatory; he has the reputation of being the finest living interpreter of Chopin.

Professor LINDEN, also a former pupil of the conservatory; he is the author of two operas which are constantly upon the repertoire of the Court Theater; the composer of excellent piano and chamber music, and a thorough and conscientious teacher.

In addition to the above-named professors, the following teachers are engaged for piano instruction, viz: Messrs. Morstatt, Beron, Attinger, Schuber, Ferling, Wünsch, Herrmann, Seyboth, Hummel, Rein, Schwab, Sittard, Feinthel, Laurösch, Hilsenbeck, Bühl, and Schneider, and Misses Faisst, Putz, and Dürr. Many of these have received their musical education in the conservatory itself, and, by thus thoroughly imbibing the principles of its method, are enabled conscientiously and faithfully to impart instruction.

Organ instruction is given by Prof. Dr. IMMANUEL FAISST. This celebrated man was born in Tübingen, Wurtemberg, in 1823, and attained high rank as a scholar in the university at that place. Being diverted by his love for music from his original intention of becoming a divine, he devoted himself to the study of the organ, and his compositions for that instrument, and his wonderful skill in rendering them, have made a profound impression wherever he has played in public. His method does not differ essentially from others, but his manner of teaching, his choice of exercises, his thorough knowledge of his instrument, and his endless perseverance withal, have won him the well-deserved reputation of being the first teacher in the world. He is assisted by Herr Attinger, a teacher of long standing and unquestioned merit.

The *harmony classes* are taught by the following gentlemen:

Prof. Dr. FAISST, who formerly gave lessons in all branches of composition, from the rudiments upward, but who has limited his efforts for the past few years to counterpoint and the higher forms. Upon undertaking the instruction of the harmony classes (at the organization of the school) he was unable to find any treatise upon the subject which would conform to his own views and method of instruction. He therefore resolved to take the shortest way out of the difficulty by writing a method of his own. That this valuable work is not known as it should be, is solely owing to the fact that its author has never found time to publish it.

Prof. R. SCHERLEN, a highly educated classical scholar and former pupil of the conservatory. He gives instruction in the rudiments, form, and counterpoint up to fugue.

Prof. Dr. LUDWIG STARK.—This eminent composer and critic teaches the female classes in harmony. He was associated with Prof. Dr. Lebert in the preparation of the piano method.

Mr. PERCY GOETSCHIUS,* an American from Paterson, N. J., and who as a former pupil of the conservatory took a high rank, now teaches the English harmony classes (male and female). Actuated partly by the belief that Dr. Faisst's hesitation in publishing his harmony work was groundless, and partly by a desire to furnish America and England with a book which would meet a want long and painfully felt by instructors and students of harmony, Mr. Goetschius obtained Dr. Faisst's consent to write and publish in English, for the use of the English-speaking classes in the conservatory, a work based upon his, Faisst's, method, but in condensed and modified form. This work is now in preparation.

The *violin* is taught by Prof. EDMUND SINGER, concert leader, chamber virtuoso, and one of the greatest of living violin artists. Born in 1830, in Hungary, he made his debut as a performer with marvelous *technique* at the age of 13, and his career from that time to the present has been a brilliant one, involving an intimate association with Liszt, Wagner, and other distinguished musicians. He is assisted by Professors Keller and Debuysère.

The *vocal school.*—Solo and dramatic singing are taught by Prof. ERNST KOCH (formerly a distinguished singer), assisted by Herren Schwab and Sittard. The chorus singing is conducted by Prof. Dr. Faisst.

The *violoncello* is taught by chamber virtuoso Cabisius.

The *flute* by chamber virtuoso Krüger (brother of William Krüger).

The *hautbois, clarionet, and bassoon*, by chamber virtuosi Ferling, Meyer, and Herrmann, respectively.

The *horn and double bass*, by chamber virtuosi Spohr and Schoch, respectively.

Declamation and acting by court actor Rossner.

Instrumentation by the director of the royal orchestra, Prof. Carl Doppler, for over forty years an active member of different large orchestras in Vienna, Budapesth, Stuttgart, &c., celebrated composer of operas, &c.

Italian language by the secretary of the royal cabinet, Professor Runzler.

Lectures upon different subjects (enumerated above) are delivered once or twice a week by Prof. Dr. Faisst, Prof. Dr. Stark, and Professor Scholl.

The following didactic works have emanated from the Conservatory:

Lebert and Stark.—Piano method in four parts. (Translated into English by C. E. R. Müller.)

Lebert and Stark.—Album of forty-three progressive instructive pieces for piano.

Lebert (in co-operation with Hans von Bülver, Imanuel Faisst, Ignatz Lachner, and Franz Liszt).—An instructive edition of classical compositions, with fingering, phrasing, and copious directions as to the manner of interpretation; comprising all the piano works of Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, and Dussek; and sonatas, &c., of Clementi, Schubert, Weber, and moreover the concertos of Mozart and Beethoven (in preparation).

Faisst and Stark.—Course of instruction in elementary and chorus singing.

Stark.—Exercises in thorough bssa (according to E. A. Forster).

Singer and Leifriz.—Grand theoretical-practical violin school, in three parts (translated into English by Percy Goetschius).

Sittard.—Compendium of the history of church music. (German.)

Goetschius.—The materials of musical composition (in preparation).

* I would acknowledge my obligation to Mr. Goetschius for many of the facts embraced in this report.

List of eminent scholars educated in the Conservatory.

Professor Linder, Stuttgart conservatory.
Professor Alwens, Stuttgart conservatory.
Herr Barner, court organist and seminary teacher in Carlsruhe.
Herr Belz, music director in Freiburg.
Merr Braun, music director and organist in Ludwigsburg.
Herr Gayrhos, conservatory in Lausanne.
Herr Hess, pianist, Dresden.
Herr Küchler, violin virtuosa in Edinboro'.
Herr Kühner, opera composer in St. Petersburg.
Miss Anna Mehlig, court pianiste to the Queen of Wurtemberg, &c.
Miss Reiser, formerly court opera singer in Mannheim.
Miss Deinet, formerly court opera singer.
Miss Groschel, pianiste in New York.
Miss Cacilia Gaul, College of Music in Cincinnati.
Miss Anna Bock, pianiste in New York.
Miss Marie Wurm, piano virtuosa in Southampton.
Herr Ed. Herrmann, concert master in St. Petersburg.
Herr Carl Herrmann, piano virtuosa in Wheeling, Va.
Herr Adolph Ruthardt, conservatory in Geneva.
Herr Carl Eichhorn, conservatory in Zurich.
Herr Ed. Vogt, organist and music director in Freibourg.
Herr Carl Schuler, conservatory in Stuttgart.
Herr Emil Mehlbeer, court orchestra in Stuttgart.
Herr Ludwig Rein, conservatory in Stuttgart.
Herr Emil Vögeli, piano virtuosa in Stuttgart.
Herr Feinthel, conservatory in Stuttgart.
Herr Bühl, conservatory in Stuttgart.
Herr Carl Armbrust, organist, conservatory in Hamburg.
Herr W. Fehr, music school in Augsburg.
Herr R. Künzel, court orchestra in Stuttgart.
Herr J. A. Mayer, court orchestra in Stuttgart.
Herr J. Krug-Waldsee, composer in Stuttgart.
Herr Marcel Herwegh, violine virtuosa (Paris).
Herr Henry Lang, piano virtuosa (America).
Prof. K. Ed. Blum, in Rome.
Mr. C. E. R. Müller, in Chicago.
Herr Franz Walter, organist in Edinboro'.
Herr L. Dingeldey, piano virtuosa (New York).
Mr. P. Goetschius, conservatory in Stuttgart.
Mr. Geo. Magrath, piano virtuosa (Brooklyn).
Herr Carl Stasny, virtuosa and music director in Frankfort.
Herr Carl Schwab, court orchestra, Stuttgart.
Herr Heinrich Lang, in Esslingen.
Mr. Wyatt Mortimer, Binghamton.
Herr Robert Erdmann, music director in Cologne.
Herr Ferd. Krauss, organ virtuosa, Stuttgart.
Herr Alf. Glaus, organ virtuosa, Münster in Basel.
Miss E. von Hartmann, prima donna in Hanover.
Miss Irma Steinacker, piano virtuosa.
Frau Leonie Grössler-Heim, piano virtuosa in Stuttgart.
Frau Louise Berghof, piano virtuosa in Stuttgart.
Frau L. Hörner, piano virtuosa in Stuttgart.
Frau J. Klinckerfuss-Schultz, piano virtuosa in Stuttgart.
Miss M. Burger, piano virtuosa in Mannheim.

Miss Anna Spearing, piano virtuosa, in Stuttgart.
Bertha Mehlig, piano virtuosa, in Stuttgart.
Miss Alice Bechtel, in Brooklyn.
Miss Eleonore Keeling, in Dublin.
Miss Lillie Osswald, in Frankfort.
Miss Elizabeth Jeppe, in Schwerin.
Miss Hastings, in Buffalo.

THE TERMS FOR INSTRUCTION

in the artist class are, for male pupils 260 marks (about $62), and for female pupils 240 marks (about $57), per annum. This entitles the scholars to three half-hour lessons in the week on any one instrument (say piano), and in composition (the ladies two class-lessons in composition), besides chorus singing and all the lecture; or to two half-hour lessons in the week in any two branches, besides composition, &c. The payment of 360 marks (about $86), per annum entitles to lessons in solo singing, composition, declamation, Italian, and piano. The terms for composition alone are 80 marks (about $19) per annum. The prices of instruction in the amateur classes differ according to the branches and the number of weekly lessons, but are reckoned in about the same proportion as in the artist class. Artist scholars are required to remain at least one year in the conservatory; amateur scholars six months. The school terms commence about April 15 and October 15.

Every opportunity is afforded to the pupils of both classes in appearing in public by the examination concerts, of which there are from six to eight during the year in a public hall, besides the weekly entertainments in the conservatory building throughout the winter. Moreover, the scholars of the conservatory have admission to all the public chamber soirées, symphonic, and virtuosa concerts at reduced prices, and admission to the court opera-house is not expensive, averaging from 25 cents to $1, according to place.

GEORGE L. CATLIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Stuttgart, November 5, 1881.

THE FINE ARTS APPLIED TO THE INDUSTRIES.

REPORT TRANSMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE BY CONSUL-GENERAL SPENCER, OF MELBOURNE.

The following report, prepared at my suggestion, by Mr. James Smith, the chairman of the fine arts' jury at the Melbourne Exhibition, will be read, it is believed, with more than ordinary interest, in view of the recent impulse given to the development of art-industry in the United States.

INTRODUCTION.

We may learn from the example of that nation of antiquity which attained supreme eminence in architecture, sculpture, painting, poetry, philosophy, mental and physical development, and in all the arts and occupations by which life is beautified and adorned, how materially the application of the fine arts to the productions of industry is capable of

enhancing the value of the latter, and of contributing to the wealth, power, and influence of the community. No doubt the Greeks were an exceptionally gifted people, endowed with an innate perception of the beautiful, and inhabiting a country so situated and so surrounded as to cherish and stimulate this instinctive appreciation of the æsthetic. No doubt, also, their system of education, which was directed to the simultaneous cultivation of mind and body and to the securing for both the maximum of health and vigor, was admirably adapted to develop the artistic instincts of a people accustomed, moreover, from early childhood to the constant sight, not only of glorious scenery, but of the most sublime and exquisite productions of architectonic, plastic, and pictorial art. This being so, they started in their career as artificers and artists with special advantages. But the love of the beautiful and the power to give it objective expression, which may be said to have put forth its first feeble buds in the archaic period of Greek art and to have blossomed into the "bright consummate flower" in the age of Pericles, is shown, by experience, to exist as a germ in the minds of men of all nations. The manifestations of its existence are to be found in almost every savage tribe, even if we go so far back as those prehistoric races, some of which incised the form of the great bear on a stone found in the grotto of Massat, engraved a correct outline of the mammoth on an ivory handle in that of the Madelaine, and sculptured the form of a reindeer upon a fragment of horn discovered at Branizel.

To quicken this germ into active growth and to provide it with the conditions essential to this healthful and robust development may be looked upon as the duty and should be regarded as a privilege by the government of a free people; and more especially in those countries in which political power is the common property of all classes, without any limitation whatever, and where the state has assumed the responsibility of educating its citizens, so as to qualify them for the intelligent and beneficial exercise of that power. Industrial instruction is admittedly the complement of intellectual training; and if we superadd to the former the inculcation of the arts of design, we quadruple, and, perhaps, decuple, the value of the artisan's labor to himself, besides making him a minister of refined enjoyment to others. But this is a matter of national as well as of individual concern; for the arts of commercial industry advance in proportion as the arts of design, by which they are enlightened or directed, are sedulously cultivated; and the prosperity of the former conduces to the prosperity of the whole people. M. Emèric-David, in his *Discours sur l'influence des arts du dessin*, has put the case of two coterminous nations, one of which, owing either to the amplitude of its territory or the indifference of its government, neglects the cultivation of the fine arts, while its neighbor promotes it. "What will happen in such a case?" he asks.

> The former, deprived of the assistance of the fine arts, will receive from the latter the productions of taste and artistic skill, which the producers will continue to bring to a still higher state of perfection; while the purchasers of them will give, in exchange, its territorial wealth. Consequently its population will diminish instead of increasing. The one will carry on an active commerce, which will augment its power; the other a passive commerce, which will exhaust it. The manufacture of objects of luxury will enrich the first; an imprudent consumption will ruin the second which purchases them; and the more the industrial nation perfects the arts, the more difficult will the tributary nation find it to emerge from its abasement.

M. Emeric-David quotes Thebes and Poland, as apposite cases in point.

Germany and France offer a not inapt illustration of the truth of the foregoing proposition. The former has always been a relatively poor

country, while the enormous wealth of France has been such that neither centuries of misrule and of oppressive taxation, nor the frightfully costly wars of Napoleon, nor the severe crises the nation has passed through, during the last sixty years, have sufficed to exhaust her resources or to break the springs of her elasticity. Her fertile soil is of course one of the sources of her wealth; but the art-industries of her tasteful and ingenious people also play a highly important part in the creation of her prosperity; for while her total exports of corn and wine, for the year 1877, did not exceed in value 412,000,000 francs, she sent abroad textile fabrics of the value of 600,000,000 francs, and 500,000,000 francs of *articles de luxe*.

With characteristic sagacity and good sense, Germany has attentively studied, and is determined to profit by, the excellent lesson taught her by her artistic neighbors; and the result is, as was shown by the display which each nation made at the International exhibition in Melbourne, that the Teuton is bent upon rivalling the Gaul in those industries in which the latter has been hitherto *facile princeps*. Visitors were prepared to admire the elegant designs and choice workmanship of the exhibits sent in by French artificers, but the achievements of those of Germany came upon them as an agreeable surprise; whilst it became evident that henceforth these two great rivals on the field of warfare will enter into a more pacific strife as to which shall effect the greater number of conquests in the domain of art-industry. Such an honorable rivalry will be beneficial to each nation, by calling forth the most strenuous efforts of its designers and operatives, and by stimulating ingenuity and invention; while other countries may learn from it the importance and value of cultivating those arts of design, in the practical application of which both France and Germany will find increased and more highly remunerative employments for their respective populations.

A comprehensive survey of the products of art-industry in the Melbourne Exhibition primarily impresses one with the immense value which the labor of man, when assisted and governed by a theoretical and practical knowledge of the principles of design, is capable of bestowing upon materials which are comparatively valueless. An artificer takes a lump of kaolin clay, the prime cost of which is too small to be conveniently expressible by any of our coins. He moulds it into a beautiful form, after it has been prepared for the potter's use by passing through the "slip-house"; it goes through the successive processes of throwing, pressing and casting; it undergoes its first firing; it is dipped and glazed; it is decorated by dexterous etchers and colorists; it is once more exposed to the action of fire in the "muffle" kiln, or the "glost" oven; and then the perfected article is perhaps a Meissen or a Sevres vase, for which five hundred dollars would be cheerfully paid. As in ceramics, so in glass, in metal ware, in tissues, in cabinet work, and in numerous other branches of industry to which art ministers as a willing handmaid. She enriches whatever she touches. She gratifies our sense of beauty, and at the same time enhances the value of the products of those handicrafts wherewith she co-operates.

In ancient Athens, for example, the craft of the potter was ennobled by its alliance with the genius of the artist; and such painters and engravers as Mentor, Athenocles, Crates, Stratonicus, and Myrmicides designed and decorated vases which would now be priceless. Lysippus, the sculptor, modeled a drinking cup for Cassander, King of Macedon, and Athenæus tells us of one which Parrhasius designed, bearing the following inscription:—"Parrhasius was my designer, and Mys my engraver. I represent that lofty Ilion which the Greeks overthrew."

There were upwards of seventy-two distinct species of drinking cups in Athens, each with its special designation. Every household was decorated with specimens of the potter's skill, and Pittheas, the Arcadian, caused it to be recorded on his tomb that he died possessed of more vases than any other man. No wonder, then, that the ceramic wares of Attica were celebrated for their taste and beauty, that there was a great and profitable demand for them in foreign countries, and that they were exported in large quantities to all parts of the Mediterranean. It was the same with the furniture, with the glass manufactures, with the gold and silver smith's work, with the enamels, with the textile fabrics of the gifted people who claimed Minerva as their guardian goddess.

Thus art, going hand in hand with industry, enriched a nation, and the merchantmen which brought to the Piræus the 3,000,000 measures of corn which were required for the support of the people of Attica, over and above the produce of their own soil—the tin of Britain, the timber of Thrace and Macedonia, the furniture woods of Byzantium, the fine wool of Phrygia, and the diversified products of Sicily and Italy, Lydia and Pontus, Cyprus and Peloponnesus—conveyed in return the highly-prized articles of Athenian manufacture which were sought for with so much eagerness by the inhabitants of all parts of the civilized world.

The taste of this people [writes Mr. W. Torrens McCullagh, in his Industrial History of Free Nations] was as free as their institutions, fickle and full of contrast as their changeful sky, creative and experimental as their philosophic and poetic literature. But, throughout, it is impossible not to be struck with the subtle and pliant adherence to harmony and proportion which characterise every article of interior embellishment as well as every outline of exterior architecture. We read of side-tables and bedsteads and other pieces of furniture being ornamented with images of carved ivory, bronze, and silver, and the prices are incidentally mentioned without any particular observation, as things of the kind seldom are when beyond the reach of ordinary purchasers. Can we hesitate to attribute such results to the daily and hourly teaching of that great home rather than school of design amidst whose magnificent forms the artisans of Athens lived and toiled?

What must have been the wealth of a people, numbering not more than half a million persons all told, and inhabiting a territory with an area of only 874 square miles, or little more than one-tenth that of New Jersey, which could afford to spend 2,500,000 dollars upon the Propylœa, or entrance of the Acropolis, while the temples and places of public amusement in their capital city were considered to be unfit to be seen "until every suitable space was filled with sculpture in ivory, gold, or marble, and every interval clothed with design and color"? It was the consistent policy of all the great statesmen of Athens, during the season of her unexampled growth and the period of her splendid maturity, to promote the interests of her industries, each of which was more or less identified with the cultivation of the arts. And her decline and fall were attributable not to economic but to political causes, to the intolerable exactions to which she subjected her allies; to the demoralization of the people by Cimon; to the transformation of an enlightened democracy into a passionate mob, and to the complete ascendancy of the numerical majority of the citizens, without the safeguards of a free press and of a really representative assembly.

The example of Athens has been dwelt upon at some length, because nowhere, perhaps, in ancient times, could we find so impressive an illustration of the importance of the fine arts when applied to industrial products and processes as a factor of national wealth, power, and greatness. And, besides, the commercial supremacy of the world will, in all probability, belong to that nation which shall make the nearest

approach to the wearer of the olive crown in wedding the arts of design to every occupation of industrial life to which they can be properly united.

ART FURNITURE.

Great Britain, Germany, Austria, Italy, India, and the colony of Victoria furnish most of the exhibits under this head at the Exhibition. Numerous rooms completely fitted up enable the visitor to form a pretty good idea of the general effect of a dining or drawing room, a library, boudoir, or bed-chamber, arranged *en suite*. In point of workmanship, the articles manufactured in each of these countries stand pretty much on the same level; the only case in which any inferiority is observable being that of Italy, where the handicraft is not so thorough nor the finish so conscientious as it is in Great Britain and Germany. For originality of design the palm should be awarded, perhaps, to the latter country, although the massiveness of some of the sofas, settees, and cabinets verges at times upon clumsiness. But on the other hand there is a certain freshness and freedom both in the forms and in the ornamentation—the latter, as a general rule, being carefully subordinated to structure—which are very agreeable to the eye. The influence of both the Middle Ages and the Renaissance is clearly visible; while the English furniture aims chiefly at the reproduction of the shape, materials, and style of decoration which were in vogue during the reign of Queen Anne, and at a somewhat later period; and, being imitative, it is open to many objections. It displays a total want of inventiveness; it belongs to a period of history, to a phase of society, to a school of manners, and to a mode or modes of social life which have completely passed away. It may have been, and probably was, in harmony with the epoch and with the thoughts and feelings of the people who lived in it, just as the solid, stately, and picturesque furniture of the Elizabethan period was eminently suitable to the Tudor style of architecture, to the costumes of the men and women of that picturesque era, and to the characteristics of our British ancestors during the reign of Henry the Eighth's imperious daughter. But the thought naturally arises, why should any one generation revert to an earlier time for models of domestic architecture, furniture, and decoration. These ought to reflect the natural, social, and individual characteristics of the current day. Otherwise they are so many anachronisms; and must be regarded as altogether incongruous with their human surroundings.

The remark applies also to some Italian cabinets, elaborate in design and overladen with ornaments, exhibited by Venetian firms. These are only suitable for rooms of palatial dimensions, such as are still to be met with in some of the stately edifices which line the banks of the Grand Canal; but they would be out of place in any modern house. One cabinet, however, with arabesque ornaments in low relief, is an admirable specimen of artistic handicraft; while the tables, coffers, picture-frames, and other objects of ebony inlaid with ivory, by G. B. Gatti and F. Somasco, of Rome, are as delicate in workmanship as they are elegant and tasteful in design. You might inspect them with a magnifying glass without discovering any flaw in the delineation of the figures, or in the scrupulous adjustment of the inlay to the material in which it is inserted. Accuracy of eye and precision of touch, combined with a thorough knowledge of drawing and proportion on the part of the artificer, tend to the production of works of remarkable beauty; and the etching in black, *sgraffito*, on ivory, not unfrequently approaches in effect, that of a fine line engraving. In this branch of art-industry, Ger-

many is treading close upon the heels of Italy, while Austria is not far behind.

The exhibits of Hindostan, as regards furniture and cabinet work, denote the unchanging character of the people. Some of the articles are made of the *shisham* or blackwood tree, which abounds in the Bombay Presidency; and the chief anxiety of the handicraftsman seems to have been to crowd the utmost possible amount of bewildering detail into every inch of surface available, and to discard all considerations of fitness or utility when fabricating chairs and tables for household use. Time wasted, ingenuity misapplied, and the first principles of decorative art completely set aside or overlooked; these are the impressions produced upon you by a careful examination of this Indian furniture. A book-case, of the wood of the deodar-cedar, from the Punjab, has a certain airiness and graceful lightness of construction and ornament, which counterbalance its defects in regard to the elaborate redundancy of decoration. The intricacy of the latter is not so offensive to the eye, because the relative softness of the wood, and its pale, delicate color, seem to be less discordant with the superfluity of incision than the teak would be, or the hard black timber of the *shisham*.

Australia is so rich in furniture woods, beautiful in grain and exceedingly diversified in color, ranging from the palest maple to black woods that almost rival ebony in hue and texture, that the art of cabinet-making ought to flourish in these southern colonies. At present, however, though the material and the workmanship are as excellent as need be, in point of design there is everything to be learned. Where originality is aimed at it generally takes the shape of grotesqueness or eccentricity; otherwise the cabinet-makers are content to avail themselves of the pattern-books of European houses in the furniture trade, and to reproduce, with the utmost fidelity and with no inconsiderable dexterity, the designs thus set before them. This is done without regard to the fact that articles which are suitable for houses built in such an atmosphere as that of England, for example where a misty twilight may be said to prevail during one-half of the year, and only a veiled sunshine is occasionally visible during the other, may be altogether unsuited to a country basking under so brilliant a sky as that which bends over the Australian Colonies.

CERAMIC WARES.

None of the art-industries of the old world are more effectively represented at the Melbourne Exhibition than the fabrication of pottery and porcelain. France sends specimens of its Sèvres ware; Limoges brings together samples of every variety of its tasteful products. From the royal porcelain factory at Meissen issues a series of exhibits illustrating the progress of the art from its rude infancy to its splendid maturity. Dresden, Munich, and Schramberg take part in the competition; and from Aich, Schlaggenwal, and Chodau, in Bohemia, and from Fünfkirchen and Vienna come numerous excellent examples of porcelain, majolica, and faience. Hand-painted plaques, executed at La Louviere in Belgium, and interesting collections of faience and majolica from the birthplaces of each in Italy, enable visitors to trace the contemporaneous progress of this branch of industry in the principal countries of continental Europe. England is particularly well represented in both pottery and porcelain, as the Mintons, the Doultons, the Wedgewoods, the Brown Westheads, the Worcester Royal Porcelain Company, and other well-known firms, vie with each other in their competitive display of ceramics; while Japan sends some of her marvelous Satsuma, Kioto,

Awata, and Tokio wares. Taken as a whole, this department of the Exhibition is remarkable for its completeness, its excellence, and its success. For, commercially speaking, it is entitled to be thus spoken of, every article in the Limoges court having been disposed of shortly after the opening of the goods to public inspection. The best of the Meissen exhibits were purchased for public museums in the Australian capitals, or by private persons; and the most costly of the English porcelain found a ready sale among the wealthy classes of colonial society, to many of whom its exquisite beauty was quite a revelation.

To deal with the British exhibits first: These indicate that the fabrication and decoration of both pottery and porcelain have made enormous strides during the last thirty years. This is especially observable in the preparation of the material, in the processes of manufacture, and in the application of color. So far, however, as mere form is concerned, there is ground both for censure and regret, inasmuch as there is a manifest tendency to diverge from the pure and perfect models bequeathed to us by the potters of Greece and Etruria, and to indulge in the bizarre and fantastic, while there is a strong disposition to imitate the ceramics of Japan, as well in design as in ornament. Instead of educating the public taste, there is too much inclination displayed to humor its caprices and encourage its eccentricities. Nevertheless, in all other respects the fictile wares of Great Britain may safely challenge competition with those of Sévres and of Saxony; and their success is all the more honorable because it has been achieved quite independently of state subventions. A century and a half has elapsed since the establishment of the first porcelain manufactory in England; but the real father of the industry was Joseph Wedgewood—one of those self-made men who are the glory of the Anglo-Saxon race on both sides of the Atlantic—whose great grandsons still continue the business at Etruria, in Staffordshire. Here, in works covering seven acres of ground and employing about 700 persons, are produced the jasper and porcelain ware, the medallions, the parian fabrics, and the ornamental pottery which have made the name of Wedgewood famous wherever the English language is spoken; and it may be noted in passing that some of the best kaolin clay employed by him was imported from North and South Carolina, and that it was owing to a knowledge of its fine properties that the clew was given to the discovery of similar deposits in Cornwall, England, from whence such large supplies are now drawn by the potters of that country.

No more striking illustration could be adduced of the économic value of art, as an adjunct to industry, than is supplied by the rapid growth and importance of the Wedgewood works. Their founder was a born artist, in whom innate genius compensated for the want of education. His instinctive good taste and æsthetic judgment enabled him to discern the beauty of classic form and classic ornament, and he adopted and adapted both with the happiest results. The fifty copies of the Barberini or Portland vase, which he produced, were educational models, by means of which he instructed a public, which rewarded him by the purchase of his admirable wares, thus enabling him to amass a well-earned fortune.

The Minton ware, from Stoke-upon-Trent, now rivals the best ceramics in Europe. In fact it may be said to comprise every description of fabric for which foreign countries are most famous—the Della-Robbra ware and majolica of Italy, the *azulejos* and encaustic tiles of Moorish Spain, the *cloisonné* enamels of China and Japan, the Henri Deux and Palissy ware of France, and the dainty porcelain of Saxony. By an admixture of bone-dust with kaolin, that transparency is produced in the china

which is so much prized by connoisseurs; and for surface decoration, raised gold and platina are employed with much the same effect as it is in Japanese lacquerwork. The Henri Deux ware, so admirably imitated by this firm, is composed of clays naturally possessing the colors which are intended to be blended in harmonious juxtaposition or contrast; the basis being a pale buff, and the minute inlay a black or chocolate colored earth. The value of a small specimen is reckoned by hundreds of dollars, and the rarity of the original ware, which was first made at Aron, in France, about 1530, and closely resembled niello work in metal, does not lessen the worth of the article so cleverly reproduced. At present, employment is furnished to about 1,800 persons, under the superintendence of a competent artist, at the works of Messrs. Minton, in England.

It must be a subject of legitimate pride to all Americans to reflect that the Haviland faience now occupies a foremost place in the estimation of real connoisseurs, and that in point of exquisite harmony of color it has no superior. Work of this kind, seen, it is believed, for the first time in Melbourne, in which the boldness and freedom of an oil painting, executed with a masterly decision of touch, are reproduced upon vases and plaques, has excited as much admiration as surprise.

The Japanese porcelain, to those who possess a sufficient amount of patience to give it the attentive examination it justly deserves, in spite of its grotesqueness of design, constitutes, so far as ceramics are concerned, one of the most attractive features of the Exhibition. It is most remarkable for a fastidious delicacy of manipulation on the part of the artificers, and for the intense feeling of realism exhibited in the ornamentation, wherever natural objects are employed for this purpose; and, as a general rule, these seemed to obtain the preference. I may perhaps be permitted to quote what I have already said on this subject elsewhere:

> The artists engaged in covering these vases with ornament seem to have selected, in a spirit of bravado, born of the consciousness of the perfect mastery of their craft, the most difficult objects for representation. Thus there are leaves upon which autumn has "laid a fiery finger," leaves which have been torn by the wind, or stained by the weather, or bored by insects, or raveled at the edges by the process of decay; berries in various stages of growth, from crudeness to maturity; seed-vessels drooping with overfullness, or bursting and scattering their contents upon the fruitful earth, or withering and shriveling beneath a touch of frost; birds on the wing, birds bathing, birds preening their feathers, birds pursuing their prey, birds brooding over their young, or poised upon one leg with half-closed eyes, indulging in "maiden meditation, fancy free;" insects and fishes, instinct with life, stamped with character, and full of motion; and the human figure, more often than otherwise grotesque in position and humorous in expression.

A character of originality is stamped upon every object. Japanese porcelain may be described as "of the race, racy;" and as imitation is said to be the sincerest form of flattery, it must be admitted that the western nations, by copying both the forms and the decorations of their ceramic wares, are paying a high compliment to the remarkable people who have just broken with their own political and social traditions, and are appropriating the arts and sciences of Europe and America.

Some of the Austrian porcelain is as pure in texture as the best of the Sèvres ware, and the ornaments, sumptuous in purple and gold, combine depth of color with luster of surface. One case was filled with examples of dainty workmanship, the figures reminding you of the work of Boucher, Watteau, Mignart, and the artists of that period, while the decorative scrolls, arabesques, and jeweled frames of the panels were derived from the period of Giulio Romano, in Italy.

As to the artistic pottery and porcelain of Italy, it may be said to adhere, both as regards structure and ornament, to old models and designs. There is no trace of invention in either, and not the slightest sign of progress. Wherever the ceramic exhibits of that country meet the eye in the Exhibition, they are found to be mechanical reproductions of vases, pitchers, bowls, salvers, and dishes resembling those which figured on the sideboards of Italian noblemen and the merchant princes of Florence, Genoa, and Venice in the second half of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries. You cannot help feeling that the proprietors of the once famous works at La Doccia are engaged in paying a servile homage to precedent and tradition, keeping their eyes steadily fixed upon the past, when they ought to be moving with the times and endeavoring to catch some inspiration from the spirit of the age in which they live.

GLASSWARE.

It was only natural that Venice, as the heiress of Rome in the art of glass-making, should have been well represented at an international exhibition held in an Australian city with which she is now in such close relations. Six hundred years have elapsed since the removal of the first furnace from Venice to the little island of Murano, upon which the manufacture has been recently revived, whilst it is somewhat curious that that place should also have been the scene of the first industrial exhibition in Europe of which we have any record. This occurred in 1268. The collection of artistic glassware displayed in Melbourne has been made with a view to illustrate the progress and development of the industry from the twelfth to the sixteenth centuries. It consists for the most part of copies and reproductions of the examples of Murano ware preserved in the Slade collection in London, in the National Museum of Naples, in the Vatican and the Castellani collection at Rome, and in the museum at Bologna. It cannot be said that either in form or color these fictile products satisfy the eye, but then, on the other hand, they are so delicate of texture and so light in weight that they appear as if they had been composed of a mere film. Some of the articles are enameled in various colors, others are overlaid with a fine veil of lace; some are embossed with quaint ornaments, others have a thin leaf of gold introduced between two layers of glass; some are sprinkled with turquoise, or flecked with agate, or splashed with gold; others are dotted with sparkling imitations of precious stones; while others still are of that pale straw color which is so peculiarly Muranesque. But mirrors framed in fragile flowers and leaves, and chandeliers and candelabra constructed so as to resemble plants, or decorated with buds, blossoms, and foliage, tinted in imitation of natural objects, strike one as a perversion of the true principles of design, and as involving such palpable incongruities between the substance of the flexible flower and that of the inflexible glass as to excite a feeling of displeasure. But Murano glass has become a fashionable household adornment on both sides of the Atlantic, and fashion is proverbial for its disregard of the canons of taste.

Venice has long been celebrated for its glass mosaics as applied to mural decorations; and, as there are no less than 8,000 gradations of tint in the minute *tessera* which are employed in the composition of these durable pictures, it is practicable to secure the utmost fidelity. Among the more remarkable examples of this kind of art-workmanship exhibited in Melbourne are portraits of Washington and Franklin, a reproduction

from the church of San Donato, in Murano, of a virgin in the pure Byzantine style, a Last Supper, and heads of Christ and the Virgin Mary. Two associations devote themselves to the fabrication of these imperishable decorations—La Società di Venezia e Murano, and La Società Musiva Veneziana; the latter being an offshoot of the former.

Austrian, or rather Bohemian, glassware of an ornamental character makes a great figure in the Melbourne Exhibition. Especially does it reveal the high state of perfection to which the processes of enameling, painting, embossing, and engraving have been brought in the workshops of Count Hasrach, in Neuwelt, the philanthropic owner of which deservedly ranks among the most distinguished captains of industry in Austro-Hungary. Actuated by the laudable ambition to provide remunerative employment for the people on his estate, and to improve and perfect a beautiful branch of art manufacture, he has devoted himself to the achievement of both objects with the happiest results. Every workman in his factory has received a special training for his occupation, and has enjoyed a preliminary course of travel over the continent, so as to expand and instruct his mind, before commencing the practical business of life. To these causes may be safely attributed the ingenuity, the inventiveness, and the aptitude for seizing upon new methods of fabrication or decoration, which are evinced by the great variety of articles produced under the count's direction. These include the rich ruby and the delicate amber glass; the malachite, the frosted, and hyalith, and the granulated gold, or rainbow glass, as also that which is crackled by plunging the vessel, when it has reached a certain temperature, into ice-cold water, and then replacing it in the furnace; the alternate expansion and contraction to which it is thus exposed giving it the appearance from which it derives its name. Drinking cups of green enameled glass, of mediæval designs; vases decorated with pictures of exquisite finish, worthy of the pencil of Watteau; others covered with a white enamel, and others still ornamented in sunk silver, are especially worthy of mention. So is the aquamarine ware, and the marbled glass of Schreiber & Co., of Vienna; and the cut glass of Hermann Muller, whose table mirrors, with groups of animals engraved in *intaglio* on the inside of the glass, and a goblet enriched by a classic subject, are works of rare excellence.

But for purity of color, transparency, sharpness of cutting, and luminous brilliancy, the English glass is unsurpassed. Among the more remarkable exhibits, as specimens of art-workmanship, are those of Thomas Webb & Sons, of Stourbridge. Conspicuous among the rest is the aurora vase, upon which Guido's masterpiece has been reproduced with literal fidelity. The body of the vessel consists of two distinct layers of glass, the one blue and the other white opal; the figures being engraved on the outer layer, all the rest of which is detached by mechanical or chemical appliances, so as to throw up the group in clear relief against the dark background supplied by the inner layer. Of engraved crystal vases there are numerous choice examples, some of them having the pictorial ornaments in relief, although apparently sunken, while others are eaten out of the material by acids. A charming variation of effect is produced by imposing transparent designs on a dull ground, or by an opposite system of treatment, the contrast in both cases being exceedingly effective.

The bronzed glassware, the forms of which have been borrowed from those of the pottery disentombed by Dr. Schliemann, in Asia Minor, is an interesting evidence of the important part which chemistry is playing in the useful and ornamental arts, as the curious interblending of prismatic colors on the surface is acquired by exposing the vessel

when red-hot to the fumes of certain metallic salts and acids, which coat it with a peculiar iridescence not unlike the changing hues of a shot-silk fabric. A similar process is pursued with respect to the scarabæus ware, which derives its name from the similarity its glittering surface presents to the wings of the beetle; while the wrinkles on it are produced by dipping the article when at a great heat into cold water, which occasions an unequal shrinkage of the material.

In the engraving of table-glass the English manufacturers are particularly happy. The designs, as well when they consist of conventional ornaments borrowed from the antique as when they are composed of natural objects, so simply arranged as to secure a correct expression of those objects without sacrificing the balance and proportion of parts, are generally such as the most fastidious taste would approve of; while the execution is remarkable alike for its precision, its delicacy, and its conscientious attention to detail. Nothing is slurred, nothing is overlooked, and there appears to be just that amount of harmony between the artistic skill which conceived and the manual dexterity which executed these beautiful productions as is essential to completeness and perfection of result.

ENAMELS.

Enameling has been called "the master art-craft of the world," and it is one which is admirably illustrated in the Melbourne Exhibition. France, Germany, India, and the United States join in an honorable rivalry, and one of the oldest nations of Asia finds itself equaled, if not excelled, by the artists and artificers of the Great Republic of the West. For it is generally conceded that there is nothing superior to the display of enameled watch-cases of the world-renowned Waltham Company, and it has been the agreeable duty of the writer of this report, as chairman of the fine-art jury No. 2, to sign a unanimous reward of a first degree of merit to the exhibits of that company, and also to single them out for special commendation in his report. It is the only award of the kind that has been made; and although appealed against, the original decision has been confirmed by the expert who was called in. For beauty and refinement of design, and grace and subtlety of workmanship, the watch-cases exhibited by this company leave nothing to be desired. Nearest to them come the undoubtedly excellent articles sent in by Lange & Sons, of Dresden, and the goldsmiths of Geneva, collectively.

The best specimens of enamels and of damascened work from India were sent in by the artificers of Sialkot and Mooltan, in the Punjab, consisting of a helmet and some spice-boxes, which have very properly been secured as examples of this branch of oriental art, by the trustees of the public museum in Melbourne. Apart from the evidences which these articles afford of that marvelous patience of workmanship which is one of the characteristics of the eastern races, they also furnish convincing proofs that the men who produced them were masters of the true principles of decoration, which they seem to apply with something that resembles an unerring instinct.

Of surface-painted enamels, belonging to the late Limoges and the miniature styles, France is the only exhibitor. The examples of both are various in character, but homogeneous in style. Portraits of the illustrious men and women of France and Italy, executed with translucent colors on a dark background, and looking as if they had been painted with transparent prigments, into which rubies, emeralds, sapphires, and topazes had been dissolved, seem to offer the promise of such

a perennial brillancy of hue and texture as no picture on canvas could supply; while the *bonbonnieres*, jewel-boxes, and other small articles are decorated with arabesques and ornaments borrowed from the period of the Renaissance, executed apparently in dark colors laid upon a white opaque enamel, and fixed by firing.

Japanese artificers succeed in *cloisonné* and *champlevé* enameling to perfection; and there are some superb specimens of both kinds of work displayed in the Melbourn Exhibition. It would be difficult to determine which possesses the higher merit of the two. In welding minute threads of wire on to a metal surface, or in cutting the pattern out of it, these ingenious people appear to work with an unerring accuracy of eye and an equally unerring accuracy of hand; and the result is a performance to which the epithet masterly may be fairly applied.

A joint exhibit of surface-painted enamels, by Berlin houses, serves to prove how diligently the arts of design are being cultivated, in connection with this branch of art manufacture, in Germany. Some elegant *tazze*, by Elster and Lane of that city, having beautifully composed centers, rich in color and harmonious withal, surrounded by a *champlevé* border on a dull ground resembling oxydized silver, and enriched by delicate engraving, are justly the theme of universal admiration.

TAPESTRY, CARPETS, AND TISSUES GENERALLY.

France has contributed to the Melbourne exhibition a magnificent example of tapestry from the national establishment at the Gobelins, representing the earth and its abundant fruitfulness, the variety of its fauna, and the richness of its flora. It is intended for the decoration of the new Hôtel de Ville in Paris, and as it has been executed from designs made by Charles Lebrun, the first director of the manufactory after it passed into the hands of the state in 1667, it constitutes an excellent specimen of the work produced in it during the most brilliant period of its history. In the preparation of the detailed drawings necessary for the production of this *chef d'œuvre* seven of the best artists in France were engaged, and a similar number devoted themselves to the composition of its elaborate border, which is in every way worthy of the sumptuous picture it incloses. It is scarcely necessary to add that the process of weaving at the Gobelins differs from that pursued at Beauvais, in that the former involves the use of a vertical, and the latter that of a horizontal warp; the workman standing above his work in this, and behind it in the other instance. Of Beauvais tapestry, two panels are exhibited from designs by M. Chabal Dussurgey, working in collaboration with a number of distinguished artists. They are characterized by a simple elegance of form and a quiet sobriety of color, in striking contrast with the brilliancy of the larger work from the Gobelins. Of Aubusson tapestry and carpets there are numerous exhibits, but with few exceptions they are *outré* in design and glaring in color; and it would be difficult to imagine their harmonizing with any kind of furniture, hangings, or wall-paper that would not be offensive and even painful to the eye.

The carpet manufacturers of Great Britain seem inclined to go to the opposite extreme, and to avoid the use of positive colors and obtrusive patterns. Olive, sage-green, bronze, brown, drab, and gray are selected as the groundwork, and oak, ivy, fern, geranium, and acanthus leaves, often faded or dying, are intricately blended in the design. The result is generally harmonious and restful to the vision.

The Indian carpets, some of which were manufactured in the prisons

of Lahore and the Punjab, are by no means worthy of the looms of a country in which so many branches of the textile art have achieved an almost unequaled perfection. European influence and modern competition have combined to deteriorate the quality of the work, which is becoming mechanical in design and equally mechanical in execution. Formerly the carpet-weaver was an artist as well as an artificer; now he finds that a production full of originality and elaborated with the utmost skill brings no higher price than one which is destitute of these qualities, and he loses all heart in his occupation, no longer pursues it as a delightful employment, and regards it only in its most mercenary aspects; the result is the decadence of this description of art-manufacture. In the mean time, successful imitations of both Persian and Indian carpets are being made, both in England and France, of which there are some good examples in the Exhibition.

Of the more delicate textile fabrics to which the arts of design are capable of being applied with the happiest effect, lace and muslin are the more conspicuous. The Flemish, Brussels, Mechlin, Venetian, and Valenciennes are all well represented. Some of the specimens of the first and second might have been woven out of cobwebs by Titania and her elfin train, while the delicate patterns might have been copied from the exquisite veining of leaf or flower, or from the beautiful forms into which the congealed vapor upon a window-pane resolves itself under the magical influence of frost. In embroideries upon silk, cloth, and velvet India carries off the palm; and the barbaric richness of the materials employed and the complexity of the patterns produced with such infinite patience, such conscientious accuracy, and such a scrupulous regard to correctness of detail, combine to produce something altogether unique if not inimitable.

SILVER AND ELECTROPLATED WARE.

It is a subject of general regret among those visitors to the Melbourne Exhibition who are familiar, either by observation or report, with the superb productions of silversmiths' ware which have made the great house of Tiffany, in New York, so famous wherever the English language is spoken, that neither that establishment nor any other of the same class in the United States is represented in the American court. In Paris, at the International Exposition of 1878, M. Louis Gonse, editor-in-chief of the *Gazette des Beaux Arts*, remarked that if Tiffany in America, and Castellani in Italy, pushed their achievements much further, the superiority of the French in this branch of art-manufactures would be seriously compromised. Fortunately for the lovers of the beautiful, the famous house of Christofle has sent some elegant specimens of silver ware, although by no means equal in richness of design and sumptuousness of character to the "Triumph of Amphitrite," the "Nereid" modeled by Reiber, or the coffee-service modeled by Carrier-Belleuse, which were displayed in Paris; while it must also be admitted that the influence of Japanese designs is a little too obvious in the decorations as well as in the forms of some of the articles exhibited. Perhaps this is rendered all the more unpleasantly apparent by the marked contrast which such articles present to the excellent reproductions of the vessels exhumed some time since at Hildesheim, in which are combined a severe simplicity of design with a faultless perfection of modeling in the *alti-relievi* figures with which the different vessels are adorned. Conspicuous among the electroplated ware exhibited by this firm are some candelabra modeled in close conformity with the principles of Greek art, and others in which the style adopted is that of the Renaissance and Louis Quatorze.

Germany is coming to the front, in silversmiths' ware, with a bound; and the most elegant tea services in the exhibition are those which have been sent in from Berlin and Pforzheim. The designs have evidently been furnished by artists who were thoroughly masters of the true principles of formative and decorative art; and who knew how to co-ordinate such elements as variety, fitness, simplicity, and contrast, in their compositions; and who also took care to secure the utmost harmony between form and ornament. One table service, enriched with gilt arabesques, is quite a gem in its way. The electroplated ware exhibited by German houses, it may be added, bears the same artistic impress in its design and decoration as the costlier articles in silver.

The most imposing display of electroplated ware, however, both as regards quantity and variety, is that made by several English firms. In no respect is the wonderful progress which has been made in the arts of design, during the last thirty years in Great Britain, more strikingly apparent than in this particular department of metallurgical industry. Every article for the service of the table is now a thing of beauty, and a pleasure for the eye to rest upon; while the material which is fabricated and ornamented with so much skill and taste, and with such a delicate sense of grace and refinement, although less intrinsically valuable than silver, possesses all those qualities of surface and brilliancy which recommend the choicer metal to the vision. And herein scientific invention marches hand in hand with the political tendencies of the age; for while these act in the direction of a wide distribution of power and knowledge, that also brings within the reach of an ever-enlarging multitude those gratifications of the æsthetic faculties which were formerly accessible only to the privileged few.

In the estimation of competent judges the silver-plated ware of Messrs. Simpson, Hall, Miller & Co., of Wallingford, Conn., of the Middletown Plate Company, in the same State, and of Messrs. Reed & Barton, of Taunton, Mass., is on a line with the best in the exhibition. It may not be irrelevant to add that the basis of the American ware is regarded as superior to the nickel employed in some other countries; while the workmanship is looked upon as an indication of the high perfection to which the art manufacturers of the United States both aspire to and attain. From this display of ware intended for the ornament of the table, for wedding presents, and for prizes to be awarded in all kinds of public competitions, something also has been learned with respect to the wealth and the elegant tastes and habits of the American people. It seems to be one of the beneficial results of the grand scale upon which manufactures are carried on in America, that it enables the directors of these great undertakings to command an ample supply of capital wherewith to secure the services of artists, designers, superintendents, and artificers of the highest skill and ability, and hence the high standard of excellence reached by this class of American exhibits.

This remark applies also to the artistic manufacture of fittings for doors and windows displayed by the Russell & Erwin Manufacturing Company of New Britain, Conn.;—exhibits which serve to show how much beauty can be imparted to the commonest objects, and that even a lock, a finger-plate, or a window-fastening may be made a source of æsthetic gratification.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Melbourne, September 6, 1881.

RESOURCES OF WEST COAST OF AFRICA.

REPORT BY CONSUL MATTHEWS, OF TANGIER.

That part of the western coast of Africa which lies between latitudes 20 and 32 degrees north has been differently laid down in various charts, but, perhaps, never yet accurately, excepting the portion of coast from latitude 28° to 29° 30′, reconnoitered and surveyed by the commission on board the Spanish man of war, Blasco de Garay, in 1878. The Spaniards, who fish on this coast eastward of the Canary Islands, assure us that soundings are to be found quite across to the continent, and there is a tradition among the Arabs that in very remote ages those islands formed part of the African Continent. In support of this tradition it may be observed that the aborigines of Lancerotto resemble in manners, in physiognomy, and in person the Africans of the Atlas, and retain some of their customs, and there is no doubt that the geological formation and the vegetation of the Canary Islands correspond with those of the Atlas Mountains nearest the Atlantic. North and south of the promontories of Gher the Atlas range runs into the Atlantic Ocean and reappears at no great distance from the coast, and forms the group known as the Canaries; Lancerotto being one of said group.

That portion of the coast which lies between the above-mentioned latitudes is a desert country interspersed with immense hills of loose sand, which are from time to time driven by the wind into various forms, and so impregnate the air for many miles out at sea, as to give to the atmosphere an appearance of hazy weather. Navigators not aware of this circumstance never suspect during such appearances that they are near land until they discover the breakers on the coast, which is so extremely flat in most places that one may walk a mile into the sea without being over the knees; so that ships strike when at a considerable distance from the beach. This shallowness is caused by the continued drift of the desert sands towards the sea; added to this there is a current which sets in from the west towards Africa with inconceivable force, which has been the cause of numerous wrecks, many of which have never been known, as the plundering Arabs, after taking everything portable from the vessel, if the sea does not wash it to pieces, set fire to it in order that it may not serve as a warning to other ships which may be so unfortunate as to follow the same course. In such instances the crews have been made captives, and either ransomed or sold as slaves in the interior.

The coast of Wadnoon extends a long way to the southward nearly as far as Cape Bogador. The river Akassa, which often erroneously has been called in the maps the river Nun, and in some Daradas, is a large stream from the sea to the town of Nun (which is some 15 miles inland and about 2 miles in circumference); from hence the river becomes shallow and narrow. It is to the southward of this river that the ships have been wrecked.

Between Akassa and the province of Ait Bainarau in Suse, is a peninsula extending into the ocean (resembling that on which Mogador is built) where are the remains of a fort built by the Spaniards, but evacuated by them at the time they discovered America. They and the Portugese severally afterwards endeavored to obtain possession of it for the purpose of establishing a commercial factory, but the natives ob-

jected to the proposal, which probably was not made by the government, but only by some speculating individuals. Several attempts have been made by the Spaniards to establish themselves on this coast, and at the conclusion of the last war between Spain and Morocco, the so-called port of "Santa Cruz de mar Pequeña" was ceded by Morocco to Spain, notwithstanding that the Sultan of Morocco has not even a nominal power over this country. In 1878 the Spanish Government steamer Blasco de Garay left the Canaries for the adjacent coast in search of "Santa Cruz de mar pequeña," but nothing was done; and, since Mr. McKenzie's operations have taken place, this territory, which lies between Morocco and Timbuctoo, is divided into several sections or kabyles, which are governed by various independent chiefs, or sheiks, commonly called *Ait-el-arbien* (the people of the forty), meaning the number of chiefs who rule them. The principal among these chiefs is Sheik El Housain Ben Hisham, who possesses great influence in council of chiefs on account of his descendence from an old imperial family, and also on account of the central territorial position which his tribe occupies. He therefore disposes of most matters in connection with trade of the country and its relations with the adjacent territories on either side of Wadnoon, and is generally looked up to by all tribes, many of which are more numerous and even more powerful than his.

The population of this country is naturally peaceful, though often called into strife either with their neighbors or other marauding tribes. Their religion is Mahomedan, and their chief pursuits are agriculture, cattle, farming, and commerce.

The soil is naturally fertile, and its great mineral riches are still unexplored, except by some few Talebs, who, by the aid of small crucibles and plain chemical substances, manage to purify the loose surface ores, and bring to market small quantities of gold, silver, and copper.

It is the specimens of ores which were awhile ago sent to London, which encouraged British traders to try for a settlement in the neighborhood.

The trade of the country is mostly done at markets, which takes place in different districts once a month between March and October, which markets or fairs are called "Armugars," and generally bear the name of the patron saint of the district wherein they are held.

Through its geographically central position Wadnoon is the halfway house for Morocco traders, who flock there during the seasons of the fairs for the purpose of meeting the "acabars" or caravans, which come from the Soudan district and Timbuctoo, all of which go no further than Wadnoon, where they do their bartering on a large scale.

These caravans, of 1,000 to 10,000 men each, generally bring with them gold in small bars, in dust, and in ornaments or trinkets (mostly taken from the dead and prisoners in the numerous encounters which are constantly taking place between the negro tribes about Sahara), ivory, ambergris, ostrich feathers, skins of wild animals, and dromedaries.

Besides this they also bring a large number of slaves of all ages and sexes, which are either sold or bartered with the Morocco traders, who, on the other hand, bring into the market sugar, tea, iron in bars, arms, sulphur, saltpeter, cotton goods of all classes, and chiefly blue sallempores and basts (dyed cottons). These articles form the staple trade carried on between the caravans, which come from both sides to meet at Wadnoon, but, in addition to these, the country itself produces in abundance almonds, gums of various classes, ostrich feathers, ambergris, also gold, silver, and copper, wool, cattle, and grain, all of which, except-

ing the two last articles, are brought or bartered by the Morocco traders and taken to Mogador for sale.

In former times there existed a kind of treaty between the Sultan of Morocco and the Wadnoon chiefs, who were his tributaries, paying him an annual tribute, for which they received in exchange grants of free houses for residences and stores for their goods, as well as exemption of export duties on parcels of goods which belonged to the sheiks.

Since the imprisonment and captivity of Mr. Butler the Sultan broke faith with these sorts of republics, and imprisoned some of the men they sent to transact their business; upon which they ceased, or reduced direct intercourse with his country, and the tributes formerly paid are now reduced to two slaves, which Sheik el Houssain sends yearly to the Sultan for the sake of keeping up their correspondence as friends and kinsmen. But while Morocco continued its retrogade course of action, the independent sheiks of Wadnoon persevered in their good faith and principle by encouraging the traders of Morocco that came to their country, and allowed them to traffic unmolested, notwithstanding the ill usage inflicted by the Sultan of Morocco upon the men from Wadnoon.

The most extraordinary feature which characterizes the "Socks" fairs is, that many men from different tribes and districts, who happen to come, are often on a footing of animosity and even have family blood to revenge, but so much respect is paid to the interest of commerce that men who meet their enemies at the fair, or on the way to and from it, are neither molested nor allowed to molest until the fair is over.

Unfortunately for Morocco, its system of government has lost in this mainspring of its commerce, as, owing to the unsafety of the roads leading through Morocco, very few, if any, merchants venture to go through Haha or Intuga, two provinces famous for their lawlessness and misgovernment; the governors of which not only tolerate highway robbery and pillage of traders, but even go so far as to participate in the spoil. In fact many gangs of robbers are known to be the governor's own men. By these means trade with Wadnoon, and even with the Sous districts, has been crippled, and Mogador merchants have lost not only the principal outlet for their imports from Europe, but also the source whence they derived the richest produce for export.

The Wadnoon people, ever active and intelligent, have seen their trade gradually falling off, and lost, have spared no opportunity to create other connections for developing the resources of their country, and therefore hailed with joy the arrival of some Spanish fishing smacks which now and then visited their coast. Negotiations were opened with the Canary Islands as early as 1859, which, however, were of short duration, owing to the bad faith of the Spanish coasters, who took advantage of the confidence placed in them by the Wadnoon people, and left without paying for the sample cargoes they took, and in cases where barter was made the goods delivered were never up to the mark of samples that were shown. This, unfortunately, created a bad impression on a race of people whose habits and customs compel them to give and take implicit confidence, but this once shaken, they have become very chary in their dealings with Europeans, though never ceasing to court the latter's connection.

Many reconnoitering voyages have been made by Spanish, French, and English vessels, but nothing of a serious nature was ever concluded as to future commercial relationships, except the assurance repeatedly given by the natives that they would gladly welcome any trading com-

munity which would come in good faith to establish commercial relationship.

The Sultan of Morocco, instead of correcting the evils which bring about so much misery to his rich but most unfortunate and misgoverned country, by adopting stringent measures and laws, and punishing malefactors, endeavors to put every obstacle in the way of progress of his neighboring republics, and for that purpose adopts the infallible mode of influencing all Mahomedans, by inciting through large bribes some of the fanatical heads of the Mussulman church to preach the holy war against all whosoever encourages relations with Christians.

Although these means have to some extent obstructed the path of negotiations in many instances, they have, nevertheless, not checked the enterprising Mr. Mackenzie, an English engineer, who visited this coast as early as 1872 in company with a ship-owner named Campbell. They traveled through the whole country gleaning information as they went along, and no doubt this journey gave birth to Mr. Mackenzie's enterprise in 1878.

Mr. Mackenzie very wisely selected a deserted part of the coast, far from every inhabited district, and offering a safe landing. Here he established correspondence with two sheiks, who, though very poor, yet possess some influence over a certain portion of the population. These two men, who are Mr. Mackenzie's pensioners, have procured him sample cargoes of wool, gum, and other produce at very high prices, which Mr. Mackenzie took either through inexperience as to the intrinsic value of the goods, or in order to entice further operations on a large scale, by giving good value for the first lots.

From all we know, Mr. Mackenzie has no experience as to the value of goods, and it is believed the trade he does is used more as a cloak to cover his real intention to establish a British settlement in that part of Africa for the introduction of British manufactures.

Some 300 operatives were brought from the Canaries in June, 1880, for the purpose of building houses, and fortifying the place; meanwhile, his trade has been carried on on board a hulk, anchored at a short distance from the shore, which serves the purpose of stores, as well as residence for the men. The hulk is armed with four Gatling guns, besides small arms. The steamers that call there landed and took their cargo on this hulk.

The Sultan of Morocco made several futile attempts to frustrate the purposes of the English company, but, through their perseverance, and also through the scarcity of fanatical influence (which is the Sultan's most efficient means), the company has carried on its work unmolested for some time.

In the early part of 1880, some English merchants of Mogador opened a correspondence with the sheiks of Wadnoon, who deputed five of their number to treat with them. An active overland correspondence was carried on as to terms for monopoly and other details, up to May, when an unexpected event rendered it impracticable to carry out their design.

A London firm, connecting itself with three houses at Marseilles, started an African expedition, and having chartered the steamer Anjou, they loaded her with sugar, tea, cotton goods, provisions, timber, sulphur, gunpowder, and arms. Three of the merchants sailed in her for the Canary Islands, whence they were to take some experienced men who had been sent from Mogador for the purpose of assisting in the negotiations. It just happened that one of these men was beforehand employed by the English traders who had been in correspondence with

the sheiks, and, having acted as a spy on his new employers, betrayed all their movements to the merchants at Mogador, and these quietly informed the Sultan's authorities of the project on foot. The Sultan, never backward in any movement whereby his perfidious intentions may be advanced, sent the Sheik Hady El Housain a large sum of money, saying it was as indemnity for robberies of the sheik's property committed on the Sultan's territory, asking the sheik at the same time to oppose the landing of the Anjou's expedition.

Thus it was that by the time the Anjou had reached Sffuy, a small creek on the coast of Ait-ba-awran, they found the beach swarming with armed men from all tribes, who made signals for the people to land. This, however, they would not do, but sent one of the employés to reconnoiter and report, and on his return he said that several chiefs insisted upon them to come on shore and treat with them, but Sheik El Housain was not there. Upon this a courier was dispatched to the sheik, who declined to encourage any enterprise whereby his kinsmen and neighboring sovereign would be prejudiced. This reply brought about a serious dispute between the partisans of the various sheiks and finished up by a broil at arms, which at once decided the Anjou to put off for Mogador, where part of her cargo was landed, the sulphur, powder, and arms being carried back to Marseilles. At the same time the Sultan circulated the rumor of his intention to open the port of Agadir at the extreme south of his coast, which rumor, like those of all the Sultan's good intentions, proved to be a *canard*.

Since the failure of the Anjou's expedition the Sultan of Morocco has unceasingly kept up the fermentation at Wadnoon, and eventually succeeded in getting some malefactors to set on fire the wooden buildings which Mr. Mackenzie had on the shores of Cape Juby, and this occurrence causing the cessation of intercourse, Mr. Mackenzie went to England, and his representatives decline to traffic with the natives (who have brought to the spot quantities of wool and other produce) until his return, which is daily expected.

At present Mr. Mackenzie's men are busily engaged building a pier for facilitating the landing and embarking of goods and sheltering vessels against the breakers, and it is supposed that in spite of the Sultan's behests England tacitly encourages the establishment of English settlers on the coast of Africa.

There is little doubt but that the establishment of direct relations with the coast of Wadnoon would tend to the material benefit of all concerned, as the Sultan's influence there cannot last much longer. The agitation caused by the influence he brings to bear upon the fanatical portion of the natives will gradually subside, from the fact that he has failed to carry out the reforms and improvements in his dominions, the promises of which were the principal temptations held out to those who carried out his desires, but who must now be undeceived as to who deserves their confidence, whether the Europeans who come to settle there for the benefit of the country, or a Sultan whose perfidy has proved more than once a source of great loss to themselves. The more sensible among the sheiks are now doing their utmost to bring new settlers into their territories, and we hear that Sheik El Housain has erected some three hundred shops for Jewish traders who come from Morocco to attend the fairs (or socks). Others are in regular communications with English, French, and Spanish houses, endeavoring to establish firm and lasting connections, but so far have not met with success (except Mr. Mackenzie, who would carry out their desires).

The position taken by Mr. Mackenzie in the extreme south of the

Wadnoon coast leaves room for other settlements along the coast nearer to the more populated parts of the territories with which trade could be opened forthwith, and the chiefs, we know, have gone so far as to conclude treaties of commerce and give hostages as to the fulfillment of their part of contracts.

It will be necessary for merchants of any nation that may wish to open trade, to have the approval and support of their government in order to offer the natives such substantial guarantees as they justly require, and also that, in case of any attacks from Morocco, they may find a nation that would exert its influence in their favor.

Having just mentioned the Sultan's feigned rumor of opening the port of Agadir, it will not be out of place to describe, *en passant*, this port and the coast south to Wadnoon.

Agadir, or Santa Cruz, called in the time of Leo Africanus, Guertguessem, is the last port in the Emperor's dominions. The town, which stands on the summit of the mountain, is strong by nature, and its walls are defended by obsolete batteries; the principal battery is at a short distance from the town down the mountain, and was originally intended to protect a fine spring of water close to the sea. This battery also commands the approach to the town, both from the north and south, and also the bay.

The town, called by the Portugese, Fonté, is still standing at the foot of the mountain, and the arms of that nation are still to be seen in a building erected over the spring.

Agadir, or Santa Cruz, was walled round and strengthened by batteries in 1503, by Emanuel, King of Portugal, but it was taken from the Portugese by the Moors in 1536.

The bay of Agadir is probably the best road for vessels in the empire, being large and well defended on every side from all winds; it abounds in fish.

In the reign of Muley Ismael, Agadir was the center of a very extensive commerce, whither the Arabs of the Desert of Sahara, and the people of the Soudan, resorted to purchase various kinds of merchandise for the markets of the interior of Africa; it was called Bab-el-Soudan (Gate of Soudan), and caravans were constantly passing to and from Timbuctoo. The natural strength of the place, its imposing situation, and the wealth of its inhabitants excited the jealousy of the Emperors, which was aggravated in 1773 by the inhabitants becoming refractory, and by Tabel Solh, the governor, refusing to deliver it up. On learning this the Sultan, Sid Mohammed, marched with an army from Morocco against it; the place did not make a long resistance, for the rebellious governor yielded to the persuasions of the chiefs to accept the Sultan's offer, that by giving in his allegiance he should receive his pardon. He accordingly repaired to Tamaract, the Emperor's headquarters, and was immediately imprisoned, but procuring through a friend a penknife, which was sent to him baked in a loaf of bread, he committed suicide. The town having surrendered, the merchants were allowed a short time to collect their effects and proceed to Mogador, where the Emperor encouraged them to build houses and carry on their trade, and thus shutting up since then the most important port of Morocco to all trade with abroad.

Beyond Agadir there is no port frequented by shipping; there is a tract of coast, however, which holds out great encouragement to commercial enterprise, and secure establishments might with tact be effected upon it, which would amply remunerate the enterprising speculators.

The people of Sus are also well disposed towards Europeans, and

the communication and short distance between this place and the provinces or districts where most of the valuable products of Barbary are raised and foreign manufactures consumed, render it peculiarly more adapted to trade than any other port of Morocco. Agadir is twenty-one miles south of Cape Gher, in latitude 30° 35′.

From Agadir southward the sovereignty of the Sultan of Morocco slackens; the tribes, like so many republics, choose their own chiefs, and the difficulty of passing an army over that branch of the Atlas range which separates Sus from Haha secures to these tribes their arrogated independence. There are but two roads fit for shipping between Agadir and Cape Bogador, an extent of coast, partly desert, of nearly 250 miles, which is inhabited by the various tribes of Arabs who have emigrated at different periods from the interior of Sahara, and pitched their tents wherever they could find a spot capable of affording pasture to their flocks. All along this most dangerous and deceitful coast, there are rocks even with, or very near, the surface of the water, over which the waves of the Atlantic ocean often break with fearful violence, and the rapidity of the currents which invariably set in towards the land too often have driven vessels ashore here.

We see these people here, their camels, horses, and other beasts, living indiscriminately together, and they are almost continually at war with their neighbors. The hope of plunder keeps them incessantly in motion, and they traverse the Desert of Sahara to Soudan, Timbuctoo, and Wanjara with as little preparation as we should make to go from New York to Philadelphia. These people, living in independence, indulge in dress and use many European commodities, which an opening coasting trade would rapidly expand to importance in kind and variety, as they are ready to adopt the use of foreign articles of manufacture.

They raise in abundance gums of various descriptions, almonds, wax, wool, skins, and ostrich feathers.

Here is the desert horse (shrub-el, ruh, wind-bibber, or drinker of the wind). This horse is fed only on camel's milk, and is principally used for hunting ostriches, which are run down by it, and then captured. About twenty Saharawans mounted on these horses follow the foot-marks of the ostriches until they come in sight of the birds, when they rush at full speed; the bird, finding its wings an impediment to its progress against the wind, turns towards the horsemen who are coming up one after the other; and, after escaping the first or second, is brought down by the third or fourth, or some of those that follow. The Saharawans carry double-barrelled guns procured at the French settlement of Senegal, but when pursuing the ostrich they rather trust to their "zerwalta," which is a stick about 2 feet long and 3 inches in circumference, taken from the Alk-Soudan tree, which produces the Senegal gum, being a hard, close-grained, heavy wood; this they throw with extraordinary dexterity at the legs of the birds, bringing them down invariably. Having cut the throats, according to the Mohammedan practice, they pluck off the feathers, and divide them, as well as the carcass, into different portions, each one taking his share. The feathers are generally sold to the agents of merchants at Wadnoon, or at the fairs or "socks."

For the information of merchants, the method of purchasing ostrich feathers in South and Southwest Barbary, is as follows:

According to custom from time immemorial a quintal or 100 pounds weight is thus distributed: 75 pounds small black feathers; 25 pounds zumar, lobar, long black, of each one third. The zumar feathers are preferable to long black, and these latter to lobar. To this quintal of assorted feathers is added 6 pounds 4 ounces of passable feathers

which are divided in the following proportions: No 1. Surplus face feathers, called ugub, No. 1, 2 pounds; 2 fine face feathers of which three count for 2 of No. 1, so that 3 pounds of No. 2 being delivered count for 2; 3 face feathers valued 2 for 1 surplus face, so that 4 pounds count for 2; 4 common face 3 pounds count for 1 = 7 pounds; to each quintal 6–4; surplus 12 ounces.

These 12 ounces over the quintal are brought into imaginary pieces or single feathers; thus 4 surplus face feathers are calculated to 1 ounce, so that 12 ounces will make 54 feathers; 4½ surplus feathers calculated at 1 ounce; 100 surplus feathers calculated at 22½. But custom makes 100 feathers count for 22 ounces, without the fraction beforementioned.

The foregoing is the mode of purchasing this article ot commerce, which requires much practice before the purchaser will be free from imposition.

The competition among the Jews, and the almost entire monopolization of this trade by those people, has enhanced the value, for by contriving to exclude the Christains as much as possible from this commerce, they are often induced to trade beyond their capital, overstocking the market, making a forced trade, throwing the profits which before were reaped by the Europeans into the hands of the natives.

During the year 1879,–'80, only 33 quintals of ostrich feathers passed through the custom-house, valued at $105,750. It is supposed that about two-thirds more has been smuggled out of Morocco, and the amount exchanged to the Spanish coasters calling at the Wadnoon coast is not known. Ostrich feathers are also introduced into Algeria through Oushdah, all from the Wadnoon districts and North Sahara.

From Tarudart to the line between Sus and Wadnoon as well as in the oases of the Sahara, the sukseb or sugar-cane grows spontaneously, but the natives have lost the art of making sugar; this cane was largely cultivated in the palmy days of Tarudart when sugar was extensively manufactured.

It may not be out of place with regard to the growth of the sugar-cane in the South Barbary districts to insert in this report what appears to me to be the most ancient direct description of the process for obtaining granulated sugar; for their skill in the production of which article the Moors were celebrated in former times. The Moors also introduced the article into Spain, for it is not generally known that sugar is one of the productions of Spain as well as of Morocco and South Barbary, for at least nine hundred years, and that the process of planting canes, grinding them, and granulating the juice has been very little improved in Spain, with the exception of the use of new machinery. In Morocco and South Barbary, as I have already stated, it has been lost, no sugar being manufactured at the present time.

The following is a translating of an Arabic author on agriculture. A Moor, Ben Mohamed Ben Ahmed Ben el Ancum, who wrote about the year 1140, in his direction for the mode of planting the sugar-cane, quotes the authority of another author of his nation, Abu Omar Ben Hajaj, who is known to have written in the year 1073. As this fact is interesting, I will quote a few passages on the subject.

The canes should be planted in the month of March, on a plain sheltered from the levant or east wind, and near water. They should be well manured with cow-dung and watered every fourth day till the shoots are one palm in height, when they should be dug round, manured with the dung of sheep, and watered every eight days till the month of October. In January when the canes are ripe they should be cut into short junks and crushed in the mill.

The juice should be boiled in iron cauldrons and then left to cool till it becomes clarified; it should then be boiled again till the fourth part only remain, when it

should be put into vases of clay of a conical form and placed in the shade to thicken; afterwards the sugar must be drawn from the vases and left to cool. The canes after the juice is expressed are preserved for the use of horses and camels, who eat them greedily and become fat by feeding on them.

The soil of the district above mentioned is well adapted for cotton and tobacco and will grow all the vegetable productions of the Southern States of America, but little of it is cultivated; being a rich sandy soil the almond tree grows in great abundance, and in like manner the olive; oil is manufactured largely by the natives from the olive and from the argan tree or "Elœodendron," peculiar to this country, and growing all through the extent comprised between the 27th and 32d degrees of north latitude uncultivated, in extensive forests of luxuriant verdure. This tree is very little known in Europe, and is unknown in America; it much resembles the walnut tree, and produces a fruit similar to the almond. The seed is covered with a very thin husk and when the fruit is ripe it shines in the dark like a glow worm. The natives gather the fruit and crush the stones, which yield a light yellowish oil, much used for cooking, in preference to that obtained from the olive. The tree is bushy and grows to the size of a large spreading oak.

The cork tree is found in almost every forest north and south of the Atlas.

The yellow boxwood is also plentiful in these districts where the orange tree thrives. The stick licorice is extremely abundant. The date, which here in Sus begins to produce a luxurious fruit, is found in perfection on the confines of the desert. At Akka and Tatta the palm or date tree is very small but extremely productive; and, although the fruit be not made an article of trade, as at Tafilet, it is exquisitely flavored and possesses various qualities. The most esteemed kind is the butube, the next is the buskrie.

When trade is opened on these coasts the date will figure amongst the first article of exportation, owing to its abundance and extra quality.

Sus and Wadnoon produce more almonds than all the other provinces of North Africa collectively, but owing to the distances overland to bring this fruit on camel's back to a seaport (Mogador) only 13,973 quintals, valued at $230,185, was exported in 1880.

Gum amarand (a red gum useful for varnishes), gum arabic, aurwar gum, Soudan, and Senegal gum are first found in these regions, but for similar reasons of a want of settlement on the immediate Atlantic coast only 6,511 quintals of gum, valued at $104,350, was with difficulty transported over the Atlas into Morocco and shipped at Mogador in 1880 for the British and French markets.

Wax is produced in great abundance, and notwithstanding the high camel freight and long distance about $50,000 of this article was brought into Morocco and exported to Europe during the same year. Also gum sandarac and gum euphorbium, wild thyme, worm-seed, orris root, orchilla weed, tobacco, kelf, and coroquinth.

Indigo abounds, but its culture is almost abandoned.

Of gold dust, only $35,000 of the amount brought over the Atlas from these provinces was exported to England last year.

Saltpetre of a superior quality, antimony, silver, and copper are found here and about Glala and Shtuka; the silver mines in a virgin state are numerous.

The resources and productions of this territory can only be developed, and made the source of commercial wealth, by the establishment of settlements on the most convenient sites for shipping on this extensive coast.

Commerce between this country and the United States was carried

on through the port of Mogador, in Morocco, since the year 1792: It was impeded by a dispute between Morocco and America in the years 1804 and 1805, which, however, was amicably adjusted, and the trade resumed in 1806. Vessels sailing from Salem, Boston, and other ports of the United States with West Indian and American produce and notions, called at Mogador and received, in return, the various articles of South Barbary produce, and by these means the agents of American merchants established at Mogador were enabled to undersell the British in all West India and American goods, and even in those of the East Indies.

During the early trade of the United States with West Africa, the American brig Commerce, Capt. James Riley, was shipwrecked in August, 1815, when the captain and crew were made captives by the Arabs of Wadnoon and released after much suffering and labor; since then, the American direct trade declined, and at last ended at the beginning of the civil war.

Lists of goods now finding an easy and large sale in Sus and Wadnoon:

Cottons.—32 inches, 24 yards gray cottons, 14 by 14 to 18 by 18, 6¾ to 7 pounds per piece; 28–29 inches, 24 gray cottons, 14 by 14 to 18 by 18, 5¾ to 6 pounds per piece; 29–31 inches, 24 yards bleached calicoes, stiffened, various qualities; 34–35 inches, 36 yards bleached long cloths, stiffened, various qualities; 29–35 inches, 20 yards tangibs, 10 by 8, bleached, stiffened; 28–36 inches, 20 yards soft mulls, 10 by 10 to 14 by 14, bleached; 28 inches, 24 yards printed calicoes, 14 by 14 to 16 by 16, chiefly reds; 36 inches, 18 yards dyed cottons called blue; sallem-pores, or bafts, various weights, ranging from 4½ to 8 pounds per piece; 36 inches, 2¼ to 5 yards blue morées in bafts; sewing cotton, in bundles of 10 pounds; knitting cotton in bundles, 2½ to 3 pounds; printed cotton handkerchiefs, 39 inches; 26–28 yards colored woolen cloths, all colors; 30–36 inches, 2¼ to 2½ yards, orange and red, bordered scarfs, for turbans; the same, fancy; 31 inches 40 yards bleached shirtings; 31 inches, 20 yards bleached shirtings.

Ironware.—Copper-wire: Belgian-made Moorish daggers; Flemish knives of an inferior quality, with common wooden handle, red and yellow; gun barrels single, made in the Moorish shape; double-barreled guns, flint-locks preferred.

Sundries.—German mirrors in metal covers, low qualities; the same, razors of very low quality, wooden and horn handles; German sword-blades; petroleum and cheap, handy petroleum lamps; Venetian beads of all descriptions; composite candles; coarse gunpowder; Swedish iron in bars; steel in bars; amber beads (Geneva); coral beads (Geneva); colonials; loaf sugar, in loaves weighing from 2½ to 6 pounds; hyson tea, various qualities; sulphur in barrels; sarsaparilla in bundles; indigo.

There is also a moderate sale for plated ware, teapots, trays, wood-burners, and scent bottles, pewter teapots, brass and copper kettles, and other classes of hardware; but this trade is rather limited.

FELIX C. MATHEWS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE AT TANGIER.

THE NEW IMPORT TARIFF OF VENEZUELA.

TRANSMITTED BY CONSUL PLUMACHER, OF MARACAIBO.

In connection with the translation of the new Venezuelan import tariff, herewith transmitted, which went into effect July 1 last, I desire to state that although much labor and careful investigation have been bestowed on rendering it into English, the result can hardly be regarded as entirely satisfactory. In this country, where the Spanish language is, perhaps, more perverted than in any other of the South American Republics, and where an abundance of local expressions are current it is, always difficult, and sometimes impossible, to give the exact equivalents in English. Still the translation is as correct as could possibly be made, and will give an accurate general idea of the duties, which in some cases might be almost regarded as prohibitory.

Under all circumstances it would be highly advisable for our exporters to have their invoices carefully examined by the Venezuelan consuls before shipping their goods, for, owing to the extremely complicated nature of the tariff, errors might easily be committed, for which no explanations would be received, and which would be considered sufficient cause for confiscation.

E. H. PLUMACHER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Maracaibo, September 19, 1881.

IMPORTATION TARIFF OF THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA, TAKING EFFECT JULY 1, 1881.

[Translated by Eugene H. Plumacher, United States Consul, Maracaibo.]

According to the existing Venezuelan tariff all imported articles are divided into nine classes, viz:

	Per kilogram.
First class	Free.
Second class	$0 02
Third class	05
Fourth class	15
Fifth class	25
Sixth class	50
Seventh class	1 00
Eighth class	2 00
Ninth class	4 00

The articles free of importation and also those whose importation is wholly prohibited will be found at the conclusion of the accompanying translation of the tariff.

It will be remembered that in all cases the duties mentioned refer to so much per kilogram, irrespective of value as there are no *ad valorem* rates established.

The duties given in the translation are reduced to United States money, and the letters *n. o. s.* mean "*not otherwise specified.*"

The goods imported are appraised according to their *gross* weight.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Acid:		
Stearic	3	$0 05
Oleic	3	05
Acetic	3	05
Muriatic	3	05
Nitric	3	05
Sulphuric	2	02
Tartaric, in powder	5	25

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Alabaster	4	$0 15
Alembics	4	15
Albums	6	50
Alcoholometers	5	25
Almonds:		
Shelled	5	25
Unshelled	4	15
Alpaca, woolen or of wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Alum, crude	3	05
Ammonia, liquid	5	25
Anchors, boat and launch	2	02
Anchors, ships'	3	05
Aniseed	4	15
Arabias, linen or cotton	5	25
Argil	2	02
Apparatus, photographic	5	25
Areometers	5	25
Arsenic	5	25
Articles containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Articles in imitation gold or silver, n. o. s	6	50
Articles of German silver or imitation	6	50
Articles solely for the fabrication of hats	4	15
Asphalt	2	02
Adzes	3	05
Anvils	3	05
Ashes, wood	2	02
Awls	4	15
Augers	4	15
Accordeons and concertinas	5	25
Apples	2	02
Bran	2	02
Beneseed	4	15
Bombazine	7	1 00
Bitters	7	1 00
Binoculars containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Binoculars, n. o. s	6	50
Brimstone	3	05
Bagatelle tables with accessories	4	15
Billiard tables with accessories	4	15
Balusters, iron	3	05
Balconies, iron	3	05
Buckets, according to material		
Barometers	6	50
Bars, rough iron	2	02
Barrels, pipes, or hogsheads, set up or in parts	3	05
Baize or ratteen, in pieces or blankets	6	50
Blacking, shoe	4	15
Blacking, n. o. s	2	02
Bridle bits:		
Of iron, steel, copper, or brass	4	15
Gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Balls, billiard, bone or ivory	6	50
Bags:		
Money, thread or cotton	7	1 00
Money, silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Traveling	5	25
Game	7	1 00
Paper	5	25
Leather, wine	5	25
Empty, of common hemp, unbleached Osnaburg, &c	4	15
Bottles, common, of ordinary dark or clear glass	2	02
Bottle holders	6	50
Boats or launches, set up or in parts	2	02
Buttons, silk, gold, or silver	8	2 00
Buttons, n. o. s	6	50
Bramant:		
Unbleached	5	25
White linen, or linen mixed with cotton	6	50
Brandy	7	1 00
Boxes:		
Empty wooden	4	15
Iron, money, or safes	3	05
Small, of brass, steel, iron, or other similar metal	4	15
Sole-leather hat	5	25
Paper hat	4	15
Pasteboard, entire or in pieces	4	15
Paint	5	25
Boilers:		
Iron	3	05
Copper	4	15

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Boots and shoes, rubber	6	$0 50
Boots and shoes, n. o. s	9	4 00
Boot-jacks	4	15
Bindings, shoe	7	1 00
Bells:		
Brass, bronze, iron, or any similar metal	4	15
Hand, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Hand, gold or silver	8	2 00
Bell metal in any form, n. o. s	4	15
Baskets	4	15
Bougies and catheters, all classes	5	25
Bagging, gunny	3	05
Barley, in the husk	2	02
Barley, husked or ground	4	15
Brushes for the hair, teeth, clothes, and shoes	5	25
Brushes, artists'	5	25
Brushes, n. o. s	4	15
Brushes, feather	6	50
Bristles, shoemakers'	5	25
Beer	3	05
Beer, condensed	5	25
Bolts, iron	4	15
Bark, for tanning	2	02
Beams, pine or other ordinary wood	2	02
Brooms and brushes of palm fiber, rushes, or other vegetable material	6	$0 50
Brooms and brushes of horsehair	5	25
Blankets, white cotton, or woolen, or with colored borders	5	25
Blankets, goat's hair	5	25
Busts, iron	3	05
Bone:		
Unmanufactured	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s	6	50
Beans	3	05
Buckles:		
Steel, copper, iron, or other similar metal for shoes, hats, or clothing	6	50
Covered with leather	5	25
Gilded or plated, or of German silver	6	50
Copper, iron, &c., for harness	4	15
Bird cages, wire	4	15
Bricks, bath	2	02
Bricks, n. o. s	2	02
Bunting	7	1 00
Black lead	3	05
Blank-books	5	25
Book-slates	2	02
Butter	3	05
Basins, iron, tinned or glazed	3	05
Basins, n. o. s., according to material		
Bridges, with chains, roadways, &c., n. o. s	3	05
Boards or planks of pine or other common wood, unplaned and unjoined	2	02
Boards or planks, planed or joined	3	05
Boards, common wooden, prepared for making boxes	2	02
Bacon	3	05
Braid, thread, cotton, wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Braid, silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Beads for embroidering, not gold or silver	6	50
Beads, gold or silver	8	2 00
Beads, imitation gold or silver	6	50
Beads, n. o. s	6	50
Belts or girdles:		
Cotton, linen or wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Rubber	6	50
Woven or knitted cotton	6	50
Burins	4	15
Bath tubs, according to material		
Batiste, colored cotton	7	1 00
Brillantine, colored cotton	6	50
Brin, unbleached	5	25
Brass or bronze:		
Unmanufactured	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Books of gold, silver or bronze leaf, or their imitations, for gilding, silvering or bronzing	5	25
Books:		
Unbound, not included in the first class, pamphlets and primary books of instruction	3	05
Bound, whose bindings contain velvet, silk, mother-of-pearl, ivory or tortoise shell, or with gilt or plated ornaments	8	2 00
Bound, n. o. s	4	15

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Bridle ornaments:		
Gold or silver	8	$2 00
Gilded, plated or of German silver	6	50
N. o. s	4	15
Blunderbusses	7	1 00
Bone black	4	15
Bows, wooden, for musical instruments	5	25
Britannias:		
White cotton	5	25
White linen, or linen mixed with cotton	6	50
Capers	4	15
Carroway seed	4	15
Carpets, entire, or in cuts	6	50
Cushions and pillows, silk, pure, or mixed	8	2 00
Cushions and pillows, n. o. s	6	50
Currycombs	4	15
Canary seed	4	15
Chromate of lead	3	05
Cruet stands, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Cruet stands, gold or silver	8	2 00
Cruet stands, n. o. s	4	15
Chandeliers:		
Gold or silver	8	2 00
Gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
N. o. s	4	15
Christmas trees	4	15
Cushions, billiard	4	15
Clay, in any form, glazed or unglazed	3	05
Caps:		
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Caps and bonnets:		
Straw, without adornments	6	50
With adornments	8	2 00
Cap boxes, for percussion caps	7	1 00
Curb chains, silver	8	2 00
Curb chains, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Curb chains	4	15
Compasses, ships'	6	50
Compasses, carpenters'	4	15
Cables, rigging and cordage	3	05
Capstans	3	05
Chains, iron, for vessels	3	05
Chains, n. o. s	4	15
Chests, wooden, carpenters'	4	15
Cases, watch and jewelry	8	2 00
Calendars, perpetual	5	25
Cameras, oscura and lucida	5	25
Canvass and canvass-duck, flax or cotton	4	15
Canvass for embroidering	5	25
Candlesticks, gold or silver	8	2 00
Candlesticks, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Candlesticks, n. o. s	4	15
Cinnamon	4	15
Cannons	3	05
Cloaks, paletots, and overcoats of wool or wool mixed with cotton	9	4 00
Cloaks and paletots of linen or cotton	8	2 00
Cloaks, waterproof	6	50
Capes	7	1 00
Capsules for stopping bottles	4	15
Caput-mortum	2	02
Carbines	7	1 00
Carbon, animal	3	05
Charcoal:		
Powdered	3	05
In pieces	2	02
Carbonate of lead	3	05
Carmine	5	25
Cigar and cigarette cases containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Cigar and cigarette cases, n. o. s	6	50
Card cases containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Card cases, n. o. s	6	50
Cartridges, empty or loaded	7	1 00
Carts, wagons, and wheelbarrows	2	02
Chasubles	7	1 00
Cassimere and casinet, wool or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Chestnuts	4	15
Cigarettes	7	1 00
Cider	3	05
Circulars, printed or lithographed	9	4 00

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Cambric:		
Cotton	7	$1 00
Linen or linen mixed with cotton	8	2 00
Cloves	4	15
Chloride of lime	3	05
Counterpanes, woolen, linen, or cotton	6	50
Copper:		
Old	3	05
Unmanufactured	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Cocoanuts	2	02
Coaches, gigs, omnibuses, and other vehicles, n. o. s	2	02
Carriages, baby	4	15
Curtains or hangings of wool or wool mixed with cotton	8	2 00
Curtains or hangings, silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Curtains or hangings, cotton or linen	7	1 00
Colors and paints, n. o. s	5	25
Columns, iron	3	05
Collodion	4	15
Cummin seed	4	15
Coral, mounted in gold or silver	8	2 00
Coral, n. o. s	6	50
Crayats:		
Cotton, linen, or wool	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Clasps, wire	6	50
Cork, in any form	5	25
Corsets, made up or in patterns	7	1 00
Chalk:		
White or red, solid or in powder	3	05
Tablets for billiard cues	4	15
Cretonnes, colored cotton	6	50
Crayons and carbons	5	25
Crucibles	3	05
Chromo-lithographs	5	25
Chronometers	6	50
Cubebs	5	25
Collars:		
Paper	5	25
Linen and cotton	8	2 00
Chocolate	4	15
Chisels	4	15
Cosmoramas	5	25
Crackers, sweet	4	15
Crackers, unsweetened	3	05
Chessmen and checkers with boards	5	25
Children's toys, not of wood	5	25
Condensed milk	4	15
Checks, linen or cotton	5	25
Crape	5	25
Chalice covers	7	1 00
Cigarette paper	2	02
Combs, containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Combs, rubber or horn	6	50
Combs, n. o. s., according to material		
Cruets, gold or silver	8	2 00
Cruets, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Cruets, n. o. s	4	15
Chemical products, n. o. s	5	25
Cuffs:		
Paper	5	25
Linen or cotton	8	2 00
Cheese	4	15
Clocks, table or wall, and n. o. s	6	50
Clothes:		
Ready-made, linen or cotton	8	2 00
Ready made, silk or wool, pure or mixed	9	4 00
Condiments, n. o. s	4	15
Chairs or piano stools	4	15
Cards:		
Playing	7	1 00
Visiting	9	4 00
Large printed or lithographed	9	4 00
Corkscrews	4	15
Candles:		
Tallow	4	15
Sperm, paraffine, stearic, or composite	5	25
Cupping glasses and instruments	5	25
Calicos	6	50
Covers, waterproof, for hats and caps	5	25
Canes, whips, and life-preservers, n. o. s	6	50

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Casada plates, iron	3	$0 05
Cambron, wool or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Campeachy wood	2	02
Carlancán:		
Colored cotton	6	50
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Chin-straps for helmets of steel, iron, copper, or brass	4	15
Cherries, dried	4	15
Cord:		
Linen, cotton, or wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Crinoline	6	50
Carpenteas' planes	4	15
Cloth or woven stuff for slippers, n. o. s	6	50
Cloth wire, iron	3	05
Cloth wire, n. o. s., according to material		
Cruppers	7	1 00
Colza seed	3	05
Clothing and adornments for women and children, of cambric, clarin, lawn, tarletan, silk, or wool	9	4 00
Crochet work	7	1 00
Coffee cleaners or separators	3	05
Drums	5	25
Dice, according to material		
Dalmaticas	7	1 00
Damask:		
Cotton, white or colored	6	50
Linen, or linen mixed with cotton	6	50
Woolen, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Demijohns, empty	2	02
Drawings	5	25
Dynamite	6	50
Domestics, linen or cotton	5	25
Drill:		
White or colored cotton, or unbleached linen or cotton	5	25
White or colored linen, or linen mixed with cotton	6	50
Drugs and medicines, n. o. s.	5	25
Dioramas	5	25
Doormats	4	15
Dominos	5	25
Dye woods	2	02
Doors or gates, iron	3	05
Dish covers	4	15
Door bars, according to material		
Drills, perforating	4	15
Drawers and pantaloons, knit cotton	6	50
Dresses:		
Women's (in patterns), of muslin, lawn, organdy, &c	7	1 00
Women's dresses (made up) of muslin, lawn, organdy, tarletan, &c.	9	4 00
Women's dresses (made up) of wool or wool mixed with cotton	9	4 00
Women's made up, or in patterns of silk, pure or mixed	9	4 00
Dates, dried	4	15
Door-knockers, according to material		
Dressing-cases, containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Dressing-cases, n. o. s	6	50
Essences and extracts, all kinds	5	25
Emery	3	05
Embroidering thread:		
Gold or silver	8	2 00
Imitation of gold or silver	6	50
Eye-glasses containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Eye-glasses, n. o. s.	6	50
Eyelets, gold or silver	8	2 00
Eyelets, n. o. s.	6	50
Eyes, artificial	6	50
Envelopes	9	4 00
Elastic for shoes	6	50
Epaulets:		
Thread or cotton	7	1 00
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Gold or silver, or their imitations	8	2 00
Embroideries	7	1 00
Fans, all classes	6	50
Foods, prepared, n. o. s	4	15
Filters	3	05
Frames, umbrella and parasol	4	15
Frames for mirrors or engravings with or without glass	5	25
Filberts, unshelled	4	15
Fuses and match-rope for mines or quarries	3	05
Flower pots or urns, iron	3	05

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Flower pots or urns, n. o. s	4	15
Flowers, artificial porcelain	3	15
Flowers, artificial, n. o. s	3	1 00
Fruits, artificial, n. o. s	3	1 00
Foils	5	25
Fencing jackets	5	25
Forges	3	05
Flannel	7	1 00
Fruits, fresh, n. o. s	8	02
Fruits, dried or in liquor or sirup	4	15
Fireworks	7	2 00
Fountains	3	05
Flour, potato	4	15
Flour, wheat	3	05
Flour, maize and rye	4	15
Flour, barley and bean	3	02
Flour, grits for making vermicelli	2	02
Flour, n. o. s	2	02
Firewood	3	02
Filings, iron	5	25
Filings, n. o. s	3	15
Files	3	15
French checks for women's dresses	6	50
Fustic	3	02
Furniture:		
Common, wood, cane, or straw	4	15
Upholstered, or of fine woods such as rosewood, mahogany, walnut, &c	6	25
Iron	3	05
Covers, hemp, linen, or cotton	4	25
Linings, horsehair	4	15
Fancy trimmings, linen, cotton, wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Fancy trimmings:		
Silk, pure or mixed, or of gold or silver	8	2 00
Imitation gold or silver	7	50
Fur or hair for hat-making	4	15
Fish, salt or smoked	3	05
Feather ornaments	8	2 00
Frying pans, iron	3	05
Frying pans, n. o. s., according to material		
Fire-crackers	4	15
Fringes:		
Cotton, linen, or wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed, or of gold or silver	8	2 00
Imitation gold or silver	7	50
Flax	2	05
Felt:		
For saddle cloths	6	50
Unfulled, for hats	4	25
Fulled, for hats half finished	5	1 00
Figures, wax, not children's toys	6	50
Figures and ornaments made of sweetmeats	4	25
Filtering stones	3	25
Flints and steel	5	25
Folding chairs	4	25
Fustian	6	50
Garlic	3	05
Girths, all classes	7	2 00
Glue:		
Common	4	25
Fish	3	25
Gauze	8	2 00
Gasoline	4	25
Gelatine	4	15
Gin	7	1 00
Girandoles, gold or silver	8	2 00
Girandoles, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Girandoles, n. o. s	4	15
Glycerine	3	25
Gum arabic	3	25
Gums, n. o. s	3	25
Gum elastic, manufactured into children's toys	4	25
Gum elastic, manufactured, n. o. s	6	50
Granite	3	15
Grease, common, for soap-making	3	15
Gloves:		
Thread or cotton	7	1 00
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Skin, n. o. s	8	2 00
Fencing	5	25
Horsehair	5	25

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Ginghams	5	$0 25
Gutta percha	6	50
Gold and silver leaf	8	2 00
Gold and silver leaf, imitation	6	50
Gold, manufactured, n. o. s.	8	2 00
Garters	7	1 00
Gridirons, iron	3	05
Goat's hair	6	50
Gun-nipples	7	1 00
Gun-locks	7	1 00
Gunpowder	6	50
Gun-caps	7	1 00
Gratings, iron, window	3	05
Glass and jalousies for doors or windows	4	15
Glass:	3	05
Flat, unsilvered	4	15
Flat, n. o. s	2	02
Grapes, fresh	4	15
Globes, glass, for lamps		
Galloons:	7	1 00
Linen or cotton	7	1 00
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	8	2 00
Gold or silver	6	50
Imitation gold or silver	8	2 00
Silk, pure or mixed	6	50
Glazed cotton stuff for linings	3	05
Grindstones	5	25
Hair-dye	5	25
Hair washes and tonics	3	05
Harness for hearses, carts, and wagons	2	02
Harness for coaches and vehicles, n. o. s	2	02
Hoops, wood or iron, for pipes, hogsheads, barrels, or sieves		
Horn:	5	05
Unmanufactured	6	50
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Hinges, iron, copper, steel, or other metal, n. o. s	6	60
Hooks and eyes, wire	8	2 00
Human hair and its imitations	7	1 00
Headstalls for bridles	2	02
Hemp or oakum, crude or twisted for calking purposes	3	05
Hemp, Spanish, crude	4	15
Horsehair		
Hearses, including glasses, plumes, panaches, and all other attachments when imported jointly with the hearse, even though, if coming separately, higher duties might be charged on them	3	05
Hat linings, silk, or other material	4	15
Hats or caps, plain straw or its imitations, without adornments	6	50
Hats or caps, or bonnets, n. o. s	9	4 00
Hats, high-crowned dress, of silk or other material	9	4 00
Hats, opera	9	4 00
Horse cloths	7	1 00
Hatchets	3	05
Hammocks	6	50
Hydrometers	6	50
Hairpins, gold or silver	8	2 00
Hairpins, n. o. s	6	50
Hams	3	05
Hams in tins	4	15
Hops	4	15
Helmets, military	9	4 00
Hammers	4	15
Herbs:		
Medicinal	5	25
Dried, not medicinal	2	02
Handkerchiefs:		
Cotton	6	50
Linen, or linen mixed with cotton, or of silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Hoofs, unmanufactured	3	05
Hour glasses	6	50
Holsters, pistol	3	05
Iron edifices, in pieces	3	05
Iron:		
Or other metallic articles gilded or plated, not including writing materials	6	50
In any form unmanufactured, or in old useless pieces	2	02
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Manufactured into articles for domestic use	3	05
Sulphate of	3	05
Images, gold or silver	8	2 00
Images, n. o. s	5	25
Incense	4	15

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Instruments:		
Surgical, anatomical, dental, mathematical, and for other scientific purposes	5	$0 25
For the arts and trades, with or without handles	4	15
Musical and their parts, n. o. s	5	25
Ivory in any form except children's toys	6	50
Ink, writing	5	25
Ink, India	5	25
Ink, n. o. s	5	25
Inkstands, gold or silver	8	2 00
Inkstands, n. o. s	5	25
Irish cotton muslin	5	25
Irish linen or linen mixed with cotton (white)	6	50
Irish linen or muslin, unbleached	5	25
Infants' shoes, silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Infants' shoes, linen, cotton, or wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Jet:		
Unmanufactured	4	1 50
And its imitations, manufactured, not mounted in gold or silver	6	50
Japan	4	15
Juniper berries	3	05
Jasper	4	15
Jewelry and precious stones	8	2 00
Jewelry, imitations	6	50
Jacks	3	05
Jack-knives	5	25
Japanese cotton stuff	6	50
Kitchen ranges	3	05
Knives, pocket	5	25
Knives and forks, with gold or silver handles	8	2 00
Knives and forks gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Knives and forks, n. o. s	5	25
Knives:		
Ordinary pointed, with or without sheaths; knives with handles of wood or other common material for fishermen, shoemakers, saddlers, gardeners, tobacconists, and those generally employed in the arts and trades and common hunting knives	4	15
Paper	5	25
Fine hunting	7	1 00
Keys:	8	2 00
Watch or clock, gold or silver	6	50
Watch or clock, n. o. s	3	05
Kettles, iron		
Kettles, n. o. s., according to material	3	05
Lavender	6	50
Lenses, n. o. s		
Leaves, &c., prepared for making artificial flowers	8	2 00
Lime, quick or slacked	2	02
Lime, sulphate of, manufactured, except children's toys	4	15
Locks, n. o. s	4	15
Lace:		
Gold or silver	8	2 00
Gold or silver imitation	6	50
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Linen or cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Lanterns, having any part gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Lanterns, paper	5	25
Lanterns, n. o. s	4	15
Lampshades, glass	4	15
Lint	5	25
Lampblack	3	05
Loadstone	5	25
Lamps, gold or silver	8	2 00
Lamps, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Lamps, n. o. s	4	15
Lampwicks	4	15
Lozenges, gum	5	25
Lead:		
In pigs, bars, &c., unmanufactured	3	05
Children's toys of	5	25
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Leeches	3	05
Lamp chimneys, glass	4	15
Lawn or cambric, of linen, or linen mixed with cotton, and similar fine stuffs	8	2 00
Lasts, shoemakers', according to material		
Labels, blank	5	25
Labels, printed or lithographed	9	4 00
Liquid measures	5	25
Liquors, all classes to 22° Cartier's scale, except cane rum	7	1 00
Liqueurs, sweet n. o. s	5	25
Levels	4	15

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Leather, sole, unmanufactured	4	$0 15
Leather:		
Patent	6	50
Tips for billiard cues	4	15
Manufactured, n. o. s	7	1 00
Mineral or effervescing waters	3	05
Mortars, iron	3	05
Mortars, n. o. s., according to material		
Microscopes containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Microscopes, n. o. s	6	50
Minium	3	05
Meat:		
Jerked or dried	2	02
Salted or smoked, n. o. s	3	05
Matches	7	1 00
Match-boxes containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Match-boxes, n. o. s	6	50
Mattresses	6	50
Mirrors and silvered glasses	4	15
Magic lanterns	5	25
Mats, straw, for floors or tables	4	15
Mats, palm	4	15
Muskets	7	1 00
Mushrooms, dried or in sauce	4	15
Madapolam, white cotton	5	25
Maize	2	02
Maizena	4	15
Manganese	3	05
Maniples	7	1 00
Music boxes	5	25
Music, printed	2	02
Machinery, n. o. s., weighing more than 1,000 kilogrammes	2	02
Machinery, n. o. s., weighing 1,000 kilogrammes or less	3	05
Machinery for making effervescing waters	4	15
Marble, worked or polished, n. o. s	4	15
Marbles	5	25
Masks	5	25
Materials for artificial flowers	8	2 00
Medicines, n. o. s	5	25
Merino	7	1 00
Millet	4	15
Mosquito nets of wool, or wool mixed with cotton	8	2 00
Mosquito nets of linen or cotton	7	1 00
Mustard	4	15
Muslins:		
Cotton, white or colored	7	1 00
Linen or linen mixed with cotton, colored or unbleached	7	1 00
Mother of pearl, n. o. s	6	50
Marjoram	4	15
Meat covers, wire	4	15
Merry-go-rounds, with accessories	6	15
Metallic compositions, n. o. s	4	15
Mantillas of silk, thread, or cotton lace	8	2 00
Measures, leather, ribbon, or paper, with or without cases	5	25
Measures, n. o. s., according to material		
Mills, n. o. s	6	15
Mace	6	15
Maccaroni including vermicelli, &c	4	15
Needles, gold or silver	8	50
Needles, n. o. s	6	50
Nails:		
Iron	3	05
Copper	4	15
Tarpaulin	3	05
Nankeen	6	50
Nickel, manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Nutmegs	5	25
Nubias, knitted	7	1 00
Night caps:		
Knitted cotton	6	50
Linen, lawn, lace, muslin, or silk	8	2 00
Oil:		
Almond	4	15
Benewed	5	25
Illuminating	3	05
Sesame	3	05
Colza	3	05
Olive	3	05
Bone for machinery	5	25
Cod-liver	5	25
Kerosene	3	05

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Oil:		
Linseed	4	$0 15
Palm	4	15
Fish	4	15
Perfumed	5	25
Drying	4	15
Castor	5	25
N. o. s.	5	25
Oil-lees	3	05
Oilcloth or oilskin for floors or for packing purposes	4	15
Oilcloth or oilskin, n. o. s	5	25
Olives	4	15
Orange-flower water	3	05
Ornaments: Iron for gardens and exterior of houses	3	05
Gold or silver	8	2 00
For the use of priests and churches	7	1 00
Women's head, silk nets, &c	8	2 00
Oats	2	02
Onions	3	05
Osnaburg, white or colored	5	25
Unbleached	3	05
Osiers, unmanufactured	3	05
Ore, iron, copper or tin	3	05
Octants	6	50
Ochre	2	02
Organs	4	15
Organdy	7	1 00
Pins, gold or silver	8	2 00
Pins, n. o. s	6	50
Pincers	4	15
Pumps, n. o. s	2	02
Pipes, tobacco, and mouthpieces of clay or other ordinary material	3	05
With mouthpieces of gold or silver	8	2 00
With mouthpieces gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
With mouthpieces of amber, porcelain of similar material	6	50
Or conduits of iron or lead	2	02
Pitch	2	02
Portfolios	5	25
Padlocks	4	15
Portemonnaies containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Portemonnaies, n. o. s	6	50
Pasteboard:		
Rough or for roofing	2	02
Impermeable copy presses	3	05
Fine for office use, cards, &c	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Pickles:		
In vinegar or brine	3	05
In mustard	4	15
Panoramas	5	25
Phosphorus	5	25
Photographs	5	25
Pillow cases:		
Linen or cotton	7	1 00
Lawn or cambric	8	2 00
Pencils, slate	2	02
Pencils, n. o. s	5	25
Pencil cases, gold or silver	8	2 00
Pencil cases, n. o. s	5	25
Pens, gold or silver	8	2 00
Pens, n. o. s	5	25
Penholders, gold or silver	8	2 00
Penholders, n. o. s	5	25
Pottery, n. o. s	3	05
Porcelain, chinaware, and imitations	4	15
Peanuts	4	15
Pots, iron	3	05
Pots, n. o. s., according to material		
Potatoes	3	05
Palm fiber	3	05
Paper:		
Painted wall	4	15
Gilt or silver, stamped in relief or flowered	6	50
Writing, brown or any other, n. o. s	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s	5	25
Paste:		
Polishing	4	15
For tips of billiard cues	4	15
Imitations of porcelain, granite, &c., except in children's toys	4	15
Book	8	2 00
Razor	5	25

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Pewter, manufactured, n. o. s	4	$0 15
Pears, fresh	2	02
Percale	6	50
Perfumery	5	25
Parchment, and its imitations, n. o. s	5	25
Pearls	8	2 00
Pearls, imitation, not mounted in gold or silver	6	50
Petroleum, crude	2	02
Pianos, without accessories	2	02
Peppers	4	15
Paints, common oil	2	05
Paintings and portraits, upon canvas, wood, paper, stone, or metal	5	25
Paper weights	5	25
Piqué, white or colored	6	50
Pistols	7	1 00
Plumes, for hearses, when imported separate	8	2 00
Plaited straw for hats	4	15
Powder:		
Ink	5	25
Baking	4	15
Toilet	5	25
Puffs	5	25
Flasks	7	1 00
Poplins	6	50
Potassa:		
Common and calcined	3	05
Nitrate of	3	05
Posts, iron, for fencing	3	05
Presses:		
Copy	3	$0 05
For stamping paper	3	05
Poniards	7	1 00
Poison for curing skins	5	25
Posters, advertising	9	4 00
Pelerines, cambric, muslin, lawn, or silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Petticoats:		
Cotton, made up or in patterns	6	50
Linen, or linen mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Cambric, lawn, clarin, or other fine stuff	8	2 00
Plush:		
Common	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
For hats	4	15
Pack-thread, twine, or any thick thread of hemp, flax, or cotton, not for sewing, weaving, or embroidering	4	15
Paraffine, crude	4	15
Pulley blocks, according to material.		
Quartz, amethyst	5	25
Quicksilver	5	25
Rice in grain	2	02
Rice, ground	3	05
Razors	5	25
Razor strops	5	25
Rosin	2	02
Rosin, prepared for musical instruments	5	25
Rubber:		
Unmanufactured	6	50
Erasing	5	25
Manufactured into pipes, or conduits, or bands for machinery	4	15
Manufactured, n. o. s	6	50
Rye in grain	2	02
Roulette tables and accessories	5	25
Regulators, springs, hands, and other interior machinery for watches and clocks	6	50
Raisins	4	15
Roots:		
Alimentary unprepared or in vinegar or brine	3	05
Alimentary, preserved	4	15
Resin, pine	2	02
Retorts	5	25
Revolvers	7	1 00
Rifles	7	1 00
Roofing, iron or galvanized iron	3	05
Ribbons:		
Linen or cotton	7	1 00
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Imitation velvet	7	1 00
Reins	7	1 00
Rouen cotton muslin	5	25
Rouen linen	6	50
Rivets, iron or copper	3	05

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Ruffles, lace, or of any form of linen or cotton	8	$2 00
Rings, children's teething	5	25
Steel:		
Unmanufactured	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s.	4	15
For crinolines, bustles, &c	6	50
Scented toilet water	5	25
Spectacles, containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Spectacles, n. o. s.	6	50
Saffron	5	25
Scales or steelyards of copper or principally of copper including weights (even though they be of iron) when imported together	4	15
Scales, steelyards, and weights, n. o. s.	3	05
Stewpans or saucepans, iron	3	05
Stewpans or saucepans, n. o. s	4	15
Stockings or socks, cotton	6	50
Stockings or socks, wool or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Stockings or socks, silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Stockings or socks, thead or thread mixed with cotton or wool	7	1 00
Shirts:		
Cotton	7	1 00
Linen, or linen mixed with cotton	8	2 00
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton, or having silk adornments	8	2 00
Shoestrings	5	25
Stays, all classes	7	1 00
Spoons and ladles, gold or silver	8	2 00
Spoons and ladles, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Spoons and ladles, n. o. s	4	15
Stereoscopes containing gold and silver	8	2 00
Stereoscopes, n. o. s	5	25
Strings for musical idstruments, gut or wire	5	25
Sausages	4	15
Staves	3	05
Sweetmeats	4	15
Spittoons, according to material		
Swords or sabers	7	1 00
Sword blades	7	1 00
Sword canes, and canes and whips with concealed apparatus for firing	7	1 00
Spatulas	5	25
Spermaceti, unmanufactured	4	15
Spurs, gold or silver	8	2 00
Spurs, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Spurs, n. o. s.	4	15
Statues, iron	3	05
Stearine, unmanufactured	3	05
Stirrups, gold or silver	8	2 00
Stirrups, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Stirrups, n. o. s	4	15
Saddles and saddle cloths	7	1 00
Saddle trees	4	15
Stoves:		
Iron	3	05
Copper	4	15
Soap:		
Castile	5	35
Common	5	25
Perfumed	5	25
Soapstone	4	15
Sirups not medicinal	4	15
Sealing wax for office use	5	25
Sealing wax for bottles	4	15
Sheeting, white cotton, or unbleached, or colored linen or cotton	5	25
Sand paper	3	05
Suckling bottles	5	25
Spangles, gold or silver	8	2 00
Spangles, n. o. s	6	50
Shot and bullets	3	05
Shot pouches	7	1 00
Straw, unmanufactured	3	05
Screens, metal, paper, or cloth	5	25
Shirt fronts, paper	5	25
Shirt fronts, linen or cotton	8	2 00
Stones:		
Rough	2	02
Mill, n. o. s	3	05
Refractory for foundry furnaces	3	05
Flint	4	15
Oil, for sharpening tools	5	25
Precious	8	2 00
Precious, imitation, not mounted in gold or silver	6	50
Stone, pumice	3	05

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Sulphate of copper	3	$0 05
Skins, tanned and manufactured, except sole leather	6	50
Skins, untanned and unmanufactured	4	15
Slates:		
Roofing	2	02
School	2	02
Silver:		
Manufactured, n. o. s	8	2 00
German	6	50
Sand, blotting	5	25
Salts, Epsom and Glauber	2	02
Silk, pure or mixed, n. o. s	8	2 00
Seals and stamps, letter	5	25
Sextants	6	50
Saws	4	15
Sardines	3	05
Sago	3	05
Syphons for effervescing waters	4	15
Soda or barilla, common, calcined, or crystallized	3	05
Stoles	7	1 00
Solder	4	15
Shoe horns, according to material		
Sieves:		
Iron wire	3	05
Copper wire, silk, skin, or horsehair	5	25
Scissors, gold or silver	8	2 00
Scissors, n. o. s	5	25
Scabbards, sword, saber, &c	7	1 00
Sails:		
Boat	2	02
Ship	4	15
Sumach	3	05
Sheepskins, tanned	6	50
Sashes, mouldings, battens, &c., of wood	5	25
Sauces	4	15
Shingles	2	02
Shawls, mantles, and scarfs:		
Of muslin or other cotton stuff	7	1 00
Of linen or linen mixed with cotton	8	2 00
Of wool or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Of wool or wool mixed with cotton, with silk border or adornments	8	2 00
Of silk pure or mixed	8	2 00
Suspenders for pantaloons	7	1 00
Salampores:		
Blue	3	05
White	5	25
Serge, woolen, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Serge, silk pure or mixed	8	2 00
Sienna earth	2	02
Shaving cases	6	50
Suspensories	5	25
Shot-guns	7	1 00
Turpentine	3	05
Tar, mineral and vegetable	2	02
Telescopes, containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Telescopes, n. o. s	6	50
Trays, gold or silver	8	2 00
Trays, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Trays, n. o. s	4	15
Tree moss	3	05
Tiles, for paving or roofing, not to exceed sixty centimeters	2	02
Tiles, n. o. s	2	02
Trunks, empty	5	25
Trumpets, gold or silver	8	2 00
Trumpets, gilded, plated, or of German silver	6	50
Trumpets, n. o. s	4	15
Tassels:		
Thread or cotton	7	1 00
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Gold or silver	8	2 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Trusses	5	25
Tacks, iron	3	05
Tacks, copper	4	15
Tacks, n. o. s., according to material		
Tortoise-shell, unmanufactured	5	25
Tortoise-shell and its imitations, manufactured, not mounted in gold or silver	6	50
Table cloths:		
Linen or cotton	6	50
Wool, or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Crocheted	7	1 00

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Table cloths:		
Woolen, or wool mixed with cotton, with silk embroidery or ornaments	8	$2 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Ticking:		
Unbleached linen or cotton	5	25
Cotton, white or colored	6	50
Linen, or linen mixed with cotton	6	50
Trowels	4	15
Thimbles, gold or silver	8	2 00
Thimbles, n. o. s	6	50
Threads:		
Shoemaker's	4	15
Flax, cotton, or hemp for nets and fishing lines	3	05
Flax or cotton for sewing, embroidering, knitting, or weaving	5	25
Gold or silver	8	2 00
Gold or silver, imitation	6	50
Tube cleaners, for lamps	4	15
Tinsel	6	50
Towels and napkins	6	50
Tobacco:		
Cigarette	4	15
Prepared, for making cigars	4	15
Leaf	7	1 00
Manufactured, n. o. s	8	2 00
Toothpicks, quill	6	50
Tallow:		
Crude or pressed	4	15
Prepared for stearine or stearic candles	3	05
Taffety	8	2 00
Tapioca	3	05
Tarletan	7	1 00
Tea	5	25
Thermometers	6	50
Tombs, according to material		
Table services, gold or silver	8	2 00
Touchstone	4	15
Tin:		
Pure or alloyed, unmanufactured	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Tulle	7	1 00
Talc:		
Unmanufactured	4	15
Manufactured, n. o. s	6	50
Tannin	5	25
Tongues, smoked, salted, or in brine	3	05
Undershirts:		
Woven cotton	6	50
Wool or wool mixed with cotton	7	1 00
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Urns, iron	3	05
Urns, n. o. s., according to material		
Umbrellas and parasols:		
Wool, linen or cotton	6	50
Silk, pure or mixed	7	1 00
Velocipedes	4	15
Vanilla	5	25
Varnishes, of all classes	4	15
Veneers, wooden	3	05
Veneers, metal, gilded or plated	6	50
Veneers, gold or silver	8	2 00
Veneers, n. o. s	4	15
Vegetables:		
In vinegar or brine	3	05
Preserved	4	15
Vinegar	3	05
Vizors, cap and helmet	4	15
Velvet:		
Silk, pure or mixed	8	2 00
Cotton, imitation	7	1 00
Wire:		
Iron, galvanized, unmanufactured	2	02
Iron, not galvanized	3	05
Iron, manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Zinc, copper, and brass	4	15
Gilded or plated, or of burnished copper or brass	6	50
Writing materials, containing gold or silver	8	2 00
Writing materials, n. o. s	5	25
Whalebone and its imitations	6	50
Wax:		
Black, yellow, and vegetable	4	15
White, pure or mixed	5	25

Importation tariff of the Republic of Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Class.	Duty per kilogram.
Wax:		
Manufactured, except children's toys	6	$0 50
Shoemaker's	3	05
Wines:		
Red Bordeaux, in any receptacle	3	05
All classes, in pipes, kegs, or barrels, except Spanish wines	3	05
All classes, in demijohns and bottles, except Spanish and Bordeaux	4	15
Spanish, all classes, in any receptacle	6	50
Wine, spirits of	7	1 00
Wool	4	15
Wood:		
Brazil	2	02
Common, such as boards, beams, and scantling of pine, unplaned or unjoined	2	02
Sawed, planed, or joined	3	05
Fine, for making musical instruments, and for cabinet-makers' work	3	05
Manufactured, n. o. s	4	15
Windmills	2	02
Walnuts, unshelled	4	15
Wafers	5	25
Watches, all classes	8	2 00
Wheels, coach, carriage, cart, &c	2	02
Wheat, in grain	2	02
Wadding, cotton	6	50
Work-bags	6	50
Yeast	4	15
Zephyr	7	1 00
Zinc, unmanufactured	3	05
Zinc-white	3	05
Zinc, manufactured, n. o. s	4	15

ARTICLES OF FREE IMPORTATION UPON WHICH THERE IS NO DUTY.

Animals, live, except leeches.
Articles imported by order of the national government.
Artistic objects of a monumental character.
Baggage, passengers', exclusive of furniture and effects that have not been used.
Baggage, effects, and used furniture, introduced by Venezuelans or foreigners domiciled in Venezuela who have resided more than two years in Europe or the United States, and who wish to renew their residence in Venezuela, complying with article 166 of the treasury code.
Bridges with their chains, roadways, and other attachments when they are for public use or agricultural enterprises.
Books, unbound, or folios treating of the sciences, arts, and trades, catalogues, newspapers, and periodicals, and copy-books for primary schools.
Cars, tools, and all other articles exclusively for railroad use.
Clocks for public use, when introduced by the federal government.
Effects introduced by foreign diplomatic agents and by Venezuelan diplomats upon their return to the republic.
Extract of rennet.
Fish-hooks.
Fire-engines.
Globes, celestial and terrestrial, hydrographic charts, and maps of all classes.
Guano.
Implements for agricultural use, such as plows, harrows, hoes, axes, shovels, pickaxes, machetes, bill-hooks, pruning knives, &c.
Ice.
Living plants of all classes, herbariums, or collections of dried plants not medicinal, and seeds for planting.
Mineral coal.
Machinery for producing and lighting by gas.
Machinery for sugar mills and all accessories.
Machinery for agriculture, mines, weaving mills, saw-mills, foundries, and for the arts and trades, n. o. s.
Platinum, and unmanufactured gold and silver, and gold and silver in legitimate money.
Products of Colombia introduced over the frontier, provided that the products of Venezuela enjoy the same privilege in Colombia.
Printing presses, types, and all accessories; printing ink, and white papers containing no gum or glue.

Roman cement.
Steam motors of all classes, with their accessories.
Samples of stuffs in small pieces, not exceeding 25 kilograms in weight; of wall paper in pieces of not more than 50 centimeters in length, and of other objects whose dimensions and condition preclude them from being offered for sale.
Wood prepared for naval construction, and hewed pieces of pine, oak, &c., suitable for sawing into boards or other shapes.

NOTE.—The *receptacles* in which free articles are introduced, such as trunks, boxes, bags, &c., will be weighed separately, and charged duty according to class.

NOTE.—Samples of stuffs, wall papers, &c., exceeding 25 kilograms in weight, will be charged upon said excess as belonging to the eighth class.

ARTICLES WHOSE IMPORTATION IS PROHIBITED.

Cane rum.
Cocoa-nut oil.
Cacao.
Coffee.
Chewing tobacco, in twist or plug.
Counterfeit money, and foreign silver not included in the monetary convention of 1865, according to executive decree of July 9, 1880.
Coining machinery, except by order of the federal government.
Indigo.
Molasses and honey.
Starch.
Sarsaparilla.
Salt.
Wooden sticks for matches.
Raw cotton.
White or brown sugar.
Wooden toys for children.

NOTE.—In order to import firearms, gunpowder, lead, cartridges, gun-caps, flints, or saltpeter, permission from the general government must be obtained.

EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT CARROLL, OF PORT STANLEY AND SAINT THOMAS CANADA.

I have the honor to submit, for the information of the Department and others interested, a report on the law governing education in Ontario and the system and regulations adopted therein in pursuance of the same.

The law provides for a department of education, which shall be presided over by the minister of education.

The powers and duties of the department of education are:

First. To prepare, from time to time, subject to the approval of the lieutenant-governor, text-books, programme of studies, general rules and regulations for the organization and government of all the schools and collegiate institutes, together with all other rules which may seem proper and appear to enhance the interests of education.

Second. To distribute within certain restrictions the annual appropriation for the purpose of education, to appoint inspectors, and to require applicants for teacherships in all the schools to furnish evidence of their qualifications, and to prescribe the conditions upon which pupils shall be admitted to the high schools and collegiate institutes, &c.

The law provides for public schools, high schools, collegiate institutes, separate Catholic and separate colored schools, &c.

For the support of these schools the provincial parliament makes an annual appropriation, which is divided equally upon the basis of attendance at each school.

The province is divided into school districts, the residents of which are taxed a certain amount, equal at least to the legislative grant, annually towards the support of the school to which they send their children, but no one is taxed for the support of a school to which he or she does not send children.

Should the amount realized from the residents of a school district under this provision not equal the amount apportioned from the legislative grant, the latter is withheld until an equal sum shall have been raised.

All children from seven to twelve years of age have the right to attend some school, or to be otherwise educated, four months in each year. A parent or guardian who fails to provide for the education of his or her children between the ages adverted to is liable to a fine of five dollars for the first offense and double that sum for each subsequent offense.

A petition signed by five Roman Catholics in any school district is the only requisite to the establishment of a separate school of that faith and to a share in the annual legislative grant.

In the case of colored people twelve names are necessary to a petition in order that they may have the privilege of establishing a separate school and the right to a share of the grant in question.

In the public and other schools or institutes the religious feeling of each pupil or student is scrupulously respected. In all these it is optional with the pupil or student as to whether he or she shall attend any particular religious service not his or her own.

The teachers in the various schools and institutes have to undergo very stringent examinations before the central committee, provided for in the act, which award them first, second, or third class certificates, according to their qualification or grade, before they shall be deemed qualified to teach. No one who is not a subject of Her Majesty's Government is eligible to teach, no matter what his qualifications. This is law, but I am informed by Mr. U. W. Ford, a teacher in the Collegiate Institute at St. Thomas, to whose courtesy and kindness I am indebted for the books from which I select the data for this report, that any person who can pass the examination is permitted to teach in the province.

No foreign books are permitted to be used in any model or public school, without the express permission of the department of education.

The public school year sonsists of two terms, commencing on the 3d of January and ending on the 7th of July, and again on the 18th of August and ending on the 23d of December.

In the rural school sections, which are limited to five miles in length and breadth, respectively, there are three trustees to each, elected for three years or until their successors shall have been elected by the rate-payers thereof.

In all towns not divided into wards and in all incorporated villages there are six school trustees to each town or village. Each town or city divided into wards has two trustees to each ward. A trustee cannot be selected against his own consent until four years shall have elapsed from the date of the expiration of his preceding term.

The law also provides for a certain number of county, town, and city inspectors, who shall be appointed by the county council, city or town school board, as the case may be.

The county inspectors receive as compensation not less than $5 each per school annually from the county, and an additional $5 each per school per annum from the "consolidated revenue fund." They are also allowed traveling expenses, to be determined by the county council. The com-

pensation of the city and town inspectors is determined by the board appointing them.

The schools are variously designated as public schools, high schools, normal or model schools, separate Catholic and colored schools, and collegiate institutes. There is a high school or collegiate institute in every county or union of counties, but the county council can, under certain restrictions, establish more.

A collegiate institute must have a daily average attendance of sixty male students studying Latin and Greek and four masters teaching the same to entitle it to the appellation "collegiate institute."

The county council has the power, with the approval of the lieutenant-governor, at its annual June session, upon the recommendation of the minister of education, to discontinue any high school within its jurisdiction.

No person can be appointed head master in a high school or collegiate institute unless he shall be a graduate of arts of some university within Her Majesty's dominions, and furnish satisfactory evidence of his knowledge of the science and art of teaching.

All teachers who, while engaged in the profession, contribute to the "superannuated teachers' fund" are entitled to be retired upon reaching the age of sixty, and to receive $6 per annum for each year of service; and all teachers under sixty who have contributed in like manner, and are or may become disabled, are entitled to a similar sum, and in certain cases those of both ages are entitled to $1 extra per annum for each year, as above.

The high schools, collegiate institutes, and public schools in the same district open annually on the 7th day of January, and close on the Thursday before Easter, and reopen on the first Tuesday thereafter; close again on the 13th day of July, reopen on the 1st day of September, and again close on the 22d day of December; thus making three vacations in these respective schools annually.

The admission of pupils to the high schools and collegiate institutes, is determined by a board of examiners, consisting of the county, city, or town inspector of public schools, the chairman of the public and high school or collegiate institute boards, and of the head master of the high school or collegiate institute.

The questions to be propounded are prepared by the "central committee," and transmitted by the minister of education to the inspector of the city, town, or county, as the case may be, who shall be the chairman of the board referred to, and who shall prepare a return of the answers of each candidate, and transmit it to the minister of education, for approval or disapproval.

Besides the schools hereinbefore enumerated, there are industrial schools, in which children are lodged, clothed, fed, and taught. Any child under the age of fourteen years who is (1) found begging or receiving alms; (2) wandering and not having a home; (3) who is destitute; (4) whose parent or guardian represents that he is unable to control the child; (5) who, from neglect, drunkenness, or other vices of parents is growing without proper control, education, &c., may be brought before a magistrate, and sent to an industrial school, but in no case for a longer period than until the child shall have attained the age of sixteen years. The school corporation may bind a child of this character, with his own consent, as an apprentice to a trade or other calling.

The above is only an outline of what appears to be the most salient points of the educational system in Ontario, and which is claimed here as one of the best in the world, and the fact that the prize was awarded

to Ontario at the Centennial in this connection goes far to warrant them in their claim. To quote, or even advert in detail to a law and regulation so lengthy, would consume more space than the usual monthly commercial report of the Department, and I therefore consider it inexpedient to dwell further on these points, and shall now take up the last report of the minister of education for this province touching education therein. I find from this report that the amount apportioned from the legislative grant to the public schools for 1879 was $252,564, and for the purchase of maps, apparatus, prize and library books, $12,890. The amount from the county municipal assessment was $874,071; amount available from trustees' school assessment, $1,433,153; and that from the "clergy reserves moneys" and other sources, $654,050, making a total from all sources, for the use of the public schools, for the year 1879, of $3,226,730, a decrease of $20,591 compared with the preceding year.

Perhaps it may be proper to explain before proceeding further the particulars relative to the "clergy reserves moneys," which are these:

The imperial act of 1791 appropriated 2,500,000 acres of land for the support of the Protestant Clergy of the Church of England in Canada. This gave rise to great dissatisfaction among religious bodies, which led to many bitter and unpleasant discussions, culminating in 1854 by the whole land being taken from the clergy and distributed among the various municipalities, the proceeds therefrom to be expended as their municipal councils should decide. Some of these used their portion discharging indebtedness already incurred; others made public improvements, while many invested the amount so that the annual revenue therefrom could be used for school purposes; hence the name "clergy reserves moneys."

To resume: The salary of teachers during the year 1879 amounted to $2,072,822, an increase over the preceding year of $61,614. Amount paid for maps, globes, prize books, and libraries, $32,622, a decrease since 1878 of $9,885. Amount paid for sites and building of schools, $306,025, a decrease, compared with 1878, of $107,367. Amount paid for rent and repairs to schools, $421,613, a decrease of $625. Total expenditure for public school purposes during 1879, $2,833,084, a decrease of $56,263 compared with the preceding year, leaving a balance of the public school fund at the end of the year of $393,646, an increase compared with 1878 of $35,671.

It may be proper to again allude to the fact that the apportionment is made to the several counties, townships, cities, towns, and incorporated villages according to the ratio of the population in each, as compared with the entire population of the province, and that the distribution of the legislative grant is made upon the basis of the average attendance and the time of keeping the schools open.

The statutes confer the equal right upon all children between the ages of five and twenty-one years to attend school in the respective division or district in which they live.

The school population of Ontario in 1879, between the ages of five and sixteen years, was 495,424 an increase from the previous year of 2,064. Of this number 467,845 attended school in 1879, an increase over 1878 of 412. The number of pupils of other ages presumably over sixteen years, was 19,167, a decrease of 2,415 since 1878.

The total number attending the schools in 1879 was 487,012, a decrease of 2,003 compared with 1878. Of this number there were 259,056 boys, a decrease of 1,344 compared with 1878, and 227,956 girls, a decrease of 659 compared with the previous year. The aggregate daily attendance was 219,442, a decrease of 5,146 compared with 1878.

In 1879 there were 5,123 schools, and in these there were employed 6,596 teachers, an increase of 123 over 1878; of these there were 3,153 males, an increase of 93 over 1878, and 3,443 females, an increase of 30 compared with 1878. It thus appears, there were about 300 more lady teachers than there were gentlemen teachers.

The highest salary paid to a male teacher in a county was $900; the lowest $135 per annum. In cities and towns the highest salary was $1,000, the lowest $200 and $250. The average salaries of male teachers in counties was $383 and of females $249. The average salaries of males in cities was $662, and of females $296. It is about the same in towns. From this it will be seen that the ability of ladies is not so much appreciated as it is even in the United States.

Of the 3,153 male teachers in 1879 10 received salaries ranging from $901 to $1,000; 19 from $801 to $900; 35 from $701 to $800; 45 from $601 to $700; 186 from $501 to $600; 908 from $401 to 500; and 1,972 were paid $400 or under.

The number of Roman Catholic separate schools in 1879 was 191, a decrease of 15 compared with the preceding year. The amount paid from the legislative grant toward the support of these schools in 1879 was $13,100, an increase of $479 compared with 1878. Amount apportioned for maps, prize books, and libraries, $1,018, an increase of $229 over 1878. Amount of school rates received from the supporters of separate schools $89,386, an increase of $10,265 compared with the preceding year. Amount subscribed by the supporters of separate schools $25,587, a decrease of $9,431 compared with 1878. Total amount available for the support of these schools in 1879 $129,092, an increase since 1878 of $1,543.

Out of this sum the teachers were paid $75,165, an increase, compared with 1878, of $4,864.

Amount paid for books and maps $2,575, an increase of $660 since 1878. Amount paid for sites and building schools $20,784, and for other school purposes, $24,505; leaving a balance for 1879 of $6,063. The number of pupils attending the separate schools in 1879 was 24,779, a decrease of 501 since 1878.

Average daily attendance 13,073, a decrease of 99 since 1878. The number of teachers employed in the separate schools during 1879 was 346, an increase of 13 compared with 1878. Of these 101 were males and 245 females, an increase of 3 in the former and of 16 in the latter.

As I fear this report is now too long, I shall defer mentioning in detail the numerous model normal and high schools, as well as the collegiate institutes and universities, together with the Indian and industrial schools, which at the period of the completion of the report from which I get most of the data herein were in their incipiency, and embrace such remarks thereon as may appear of interest in the next report which I may have the pleasure of making to the Department as soon as the minister of education shall have published his report for 1880.

I have previously stated that it is claimed in Ontario that their system of education is one of the best in the world. They are proud of their system, and, it appears, justly; but it is to be regretted that even in the elementary education of the province, Americans should be proscribed. As I have previously reported, no American physician can practice medicine in Ontario, and it now appears that no American can teach in Ontario, should the law on that subject be enforced, but, as I have before stated, it appears that it is not and has not been.

It appears strange that a country so enlightened and possessing so

many eminent men in all professions and walks of life, and with the brilliant future which she claims and may be conceded, should thus legislate so narrowly.

What is the cause as much as any other of the greatness of the United States to-day? Why, because she opens the doors of her wide domains to the people of all countries, their brains, professions, and trades, on an equality with her most favored native-born citizen.

As a city Saint Thomas is comparatively new, it only having been made one within the last year, notwithstanding it has seven institutions of learning; among which are a collegiate institute and a college for young ladies, viz, Alma College. This college was opened for the reception of students on October 13 last. I had the pleasure of being present on that occasion and of forming the acquaintance of its projector and founder, Bishop Carman, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, together with that of the principal, Rev. Mr. Austin, and a number of the professors, all of whom were courteous and gentlemanly.

The college is non-sectarian, although under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Each student has the privilege of attending the church of her choice. It opened with about 60 students, and I believe there have been some 10 or 12 added to that number since. The annual tuition is $190, in advance. This includes board, washing, &c. The building is large and commodious. The rooms are as large and as well furnished as one could wish. It is hoped here that it will be a success, and it deserves it from what I have seen.

Reverting to the separate schools, I am informed that they are not thus far a success. This information is not, however, from a Roman Catholic source, and it might, therefore, be questioned by a person of that faith. The disadvantages they labor under, I am told, are the difficulty in procuring competent teachers of their own faith, the limited number of supporters in some localities, and the apathy in others. Still, it is admitted that they are making great efforts towards success and may yet obtain it.

PHILIP CARROLL,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Port Stanley and Saint Thomas, Canada, November 23, 1881.

GERMAN *vs.* AMERICAN HOPS.

REPORT BY CONSUL HORSTMANN, OF NUREMBERG.

HOP CULTURE IN GERMANY.

I have the honor to present herewith in a condensed form some items relative to the progress of hop culture in Germany for the past thirty years.

According to the agricultural statistics of the German Empire for the year 1880 there were 96,451 acres of land devoted to the culture of hops. Of these, 58,172 acres belonged to the Kingdom of Bavaria, 15,551 acres to Wurtemberg, 11,190 acres to Alsace, 10,092 acres to Prussia, and 6,051 acres to Baden, the remainder scattered in small plantations through various other states.

No reliable figures exist in reference to the hop growth of former

years in Prussia, especially in the provinces of Posen and Saxony, in which no inconsiderable amount of hops is cultivated.

The statistics of the other states above mentioned admit of a comparison of the development of the hop culture for a series of years back.

There are official results published from about the beginning of the year 1850 to the end of 1880, and from these the following table can be formed, the amounts given in round numbers. The land cultivated with hops covered an area in acres as follows:

Years.	Bavaria.	Würtemberg.	Baden.	Alsace.
1850	25,935	1,729	.....	494
1860	43,225	3,211	2,470	1,161
1870	58,045	12,350	4,446	.....
1880	56,810	15,561	5,828	10,621

According to the above, Bavaria seems to have ceased extending its hop culture during the last decennium, whilst Würtemberg, Baden, and Alsace, on the other hand, have advanced continuously and considerably. In Würtemberg the records have been kept since about the year 1850; in Baden since 1865.

The following table gives the relative amount of crops raised in the states of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden for the past ten years, and plainly shows the extraordinary fluctuations to which this branch of agriculture is subject, and the danger which threatens those who farm hops alone to the exclusion of other crops.

Yield per acre in pounds.

Years.	Bavaria.	Würtemberg.	Baden.
1871	220.0	342.4	352.0
1872	413.6	554.4	836.0
1873	501.6	660.0	950.4
1874	281.6	466.4	818.4
1875	660.0	774.4	959.2
1876	167.2	237.6	369.6
1877	572.0	642.4	968.0
1878	572.0	668.8	756.8
1879	308.0	325.6	466.4
1880	413.6	624.8	589.6

It will be remarked from the above table that Bavaria, although occupying about 58 per cent. of the entire hop-producing area of Germany yields much less to the area than either Würtemburg or Baden. In the year 1872, for instance, Baden produced twice as much to the acre as Bavaria.

In quality, however, the Bavarian hops have always excelled those of any other part of Germany.

The absolute quantity of hops harvested in Germany for the last three years is as follows (quantities given in English pounds):

	1878.	1879.	1880.
Total in the German Empire	62,828,920	37,629,900	51,590,440
Bavaria	33,241,340	17,623,980	22,516,780
Würtemberg	10,796,940	5,151,080	9,848,520
Baden	4,498,340	2,798,620	3,611,960
Alsace	9,217,880	7,626,960	11,225,280

A very considerable portion of this production is exported. The commercial statistics of the last harvest year (second half of 1880 and first half of 1881) shows an importation of hops for the German Empire of 3,330,800 pounds; the exports, however, amounted to 23,891,780 pounds, thus leaving an excess of exports over imports of 20,560,980 pounds, which is 40 per cent. of the whole crop raised.

Nuremberg is the largest hop market of Germany, perhaps of the world. The annual trade in hops at this place may be put down at about 22,000,000 pounds. The fluctuations in price are so great that no approximate value, even, can be given of the total quantity. The average price of hops at this market varies from $23.80 to $59.50 per 50 kilograms, or about from 21½ to 54 cents per pound. The average of total sales here amounts to over $8,000,000.

The value of hops exported from this consulate to the United States for the eleven years ending September 30, 1881, was as follows:

1871	$86,668
1872	267,571
1873	502,568
1874	572,989
1875	11,571
1876	12,448
1877	1,975
1878	4,536
1879	7,948
1880	89,480
1881	88,063

Although the exports of the last two years show an increase over the five years immediately preceding them, yet, in taking the eleven years together, a decided decline in the amounts will be noted.

AMERICAN *vs.* BAVARIAN HOPS.

The Bavarians are begining to view with dread the growing competition of the United States. In the annual report of the chamber of commerce for Middle Franconia for 1879 it says:

In the further developing of the hop trade, two factors will in future have to be taken into consideration, which may prove themselves strong enough to combat the extraordinary fluctuations of different years in the price of this article.

For years back many persons have turned their attention to devising means for preserving hops in such a way that they may retain their freshness, and that the resining of the lupiline and the evaporation of the aroma may be avoided. Even if the attempts that have been made in this direction have not been quite successful, this much at least has been gained, that, with rational handling in packing, hops kept for one or two years can be used with good results, especially for beer that is not to be stored too long; by this means the surplus of good years can be carried over to the account of scarce years, and thus an exorbitant rise in prices be obviated.

The other factor is *the extension of the hop culture in the United States.*

There is no doubt that hops can be produced there under more favorable circumstances than with us. In addition to this, American hops (we have to admit this, though unwillingly) are greatly preferred in England to ours, and have decidedly taken precedence of us in that market. Taking the excellent qualities of our produce into consideration, such a result would be quite inexplicable if it were not that the system of German commerce, unfortunately, has itself to blame, in part, for this defeat. American hops, no matter whether of better or inferior quality, almost always appear in foreign markets in their original state, whereas, with us, parties are not ashamed to make up for exportation hops of all countries and of all qualities, mixed together, often marked with the best brands on the outside of the bales, but containing the poorest kind of goods. This manipulation may bring larger profits for a time, but sooner or later the reaction must come, as indeed it has, and it is attended with the most disastrous results, not only for those who have been guilty of such practice, but, what is still more to be regretted, for the trade in general; for German hops are treated in England

with the greatest suspicion. Take as a proof of this, that in the season of 1880, up to the beginning of April, 45,000 bales of American hops were imported into England, against 15,000 bales of German hops.

Both the trader and producer should take a lesson from the present situation; the former should convince himself that he can only make lasting customers of foreign countries by serving them in a strictly honest manner, and that in this respect the practice of the Americans is worthy of being imitated in German commerce, whilst the producer should learn that through American competition, and through improved systems of preservation, a barrier is placed against the indefinite extension of our hop plantations, unless, indeed, he wants to bring ruinous prices upon himself.

Furthermore it is absolutely necessary in many districts to improve the plant, and to give more attention to its better handling both in picking and in drying, in order that it may retain its power of competing with others.

I believe the above words, published in an official work (where compliments to strangers are not likely to crowd out other matter), will be read with satisfaction by many of our countrymen who are interested in the culture of hops, and may suggest, perhaps, that this branch of our agriculture and commerce might be largely and profitably extended.

G. HENRY HORSTMANN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nuremberg, November 4, 1881.

AMERICAN IMPORTS INTO CHATHAM, CANADA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT BUFFINGTON.

I have spent some time in interviewing the Chatham dealers in hardware, with a view of ascertaining whether there was a possibility of increasing the imports of goods of that character of American manufacture.

The result of my investigations convinces me that stoves of American manufacture have virtually ceased to be an article of importation by Canadian hardware dealers, the duty (25 per cent. ad valorem) imposed upon them by the Canadian tariff renders competition with the Canadian manufacturers out of the question. The latter, however, have to pay a handsome bonus for American patterns, often as much as $1,000 per pattern.

For builders' hardware of American manufacture there is an increasing demand, and this class of goods is becoming so popular here that dealers inform me there is but a very limited demand for any other.

Another article of American manufacture that is rapidly growing in popularity here is cutlery, and large stocks from the John Russell Cutlery Company at Turner's Falls, Mass., are found in the Chatham hardware stores, sales of which, I am told, are steadily growing in volume.

AMERICAN CARPETS.

In my report of January 3, 1881, I called attention to the prices of English and Canadian carpets in this market, and ventured the opinion that if American ingrain carpets could be furnished dealers here at figures therein named, that the sales could be increased. I am gratified to be able to state that within the past few months I have observed there is a much larger and varied stock of American carpets to be found here, and, upon inquiry, learn that the volume of sales is gradually increasing.

CEREALS.

The crops in this district were, on the whole, a fair average—better, perhaps, than in any other portion of Ontario. The only exception was the corn crop, which fell far below an average yield, certainly less than 50 per cent. A circle of country extending some 40 miles on either side of Chatham is the only portion of Canada in which corn is raised to advantage, or where it is depended upon as a staple crop. Here it is second in importance only to winter wheat, and the crop is almost exclusively consumed on the farm in feeding horses and cattle and fattening hogs. The partial failure of this yield will necessitate the importation of large quantities of corn from our Western States during the coming winter, as was the case when this Canadian crop failed some four years ago. This demand will set in before the end of the year and will be maintained until spring. The tariff offers little impediment to this trade, the duty on corn being only 7½ cents per bushel, while double that rate is imposed on other cereals. The low duty will thus prove a double blessing—to our corn producers and to the Canadian consumers.

EMIGRATION.

The exodus to the United States continues and increases in volume. During the past summer a large number of people have left this district to settle in the Western States and Territories. Farmers with families find land so high in price in Ontario that they are unable to provide homes for them, and emigration either to our Western States or to Manitoba is the only resource. Many have gone to Manitoba, but a large proportion of these emigrants, afraid of the long winters in the Canadian Territories, have preferred Nebraska, Western Iowa, and Dakota. They have generally sent back encouraging reports to their friends here, and this will be the means of increasing this tide of emigration very materially in future years. Added to these is a very large number of young men, mechanics and others, who are continually leaving for the centers of industry in the neighboring States. These are a very desirable class of emigrants, young men, almost without exception, of more than ordinary intelligence, pushing and industrious, who will become citizens of the United States and add greatly to the producing power of the country.

H. C. BUFFINGTON,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Chatham, November 21, 1881.

ST. THOMAS AS A PORT OF CALL.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH.

Agricultural pursuits have been entirely unknown on the Island of St. Thomas for more than thirty years. Its inhabitants are almost entirely dependent on the neighboring islands for their beef, cattle, sheep, goats, fowls, fresh vegetables, and fruits, and on the United States for provisions of all kinds.

The business of the island is purely commercial, and is principally transacted by German, English, French, Italian, and Spanish houses. For a

number of years it has been steadily declining, and consequently several firms have gone into liquidation, and it is reported that others are soon to do. The value of all imports for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1880, amounted to about $2,602,500, which is less than one-half of what it was in the year 1870. Many of the merchants of Venezuela, Porto Rico, San Domingo, Hayti, and other islands, who formerly purchased their stock of goods at this place, have of late years been making their purchases in the United States and Europe. Only those come now who desire to avail themselves of the nine months' credit usually given by the merchants here.

As a port of call for steamers and sailing vessels St. Thomas is now, and will for some time continue to be, of considerable importance. The following table will show the number that have entered and cleared from April 1, 1880, to the 31st of March, 1881:

ENTERED.

Description.	With cargo.	In ballast.	Total.
Sailing vessels under 100 tons	738	223	961
Sailing vessels over 100 tons	127	505	632
Steamers	302	99	401
Total	1,167	827	1,994

CLEARED.

Description.	With cargo.		In ballast	Total.
	Laden here.	Imported per self.		
Sailing vessels under 100 tons	788	79	139	1,006
Sailing vessels over 100 tons	.....	26	604	630
Steamers	198	15	177	390
Total	986	120	920	2,026

PORT CHARGES.

Vessels entering and clearing in ballast pay port taxes aggregating 4½ cents per register ton.

Vessels loading or discharging full cargo of merchandise pay 56½ cents per register ton.

Vessels loading or unloading part cargo are subject to the following scale of charges:

If the cargo loaded or unloaded exceed one ton, and is less than one-fourth of vessel's burthen, the tax is 21½ cents per ton of vessel.

If the same is less than one-half of vessel's burthen the tax is 38½ cents per ton of vessel.

This reduction of the port charges on vessels loading or unloading part cargoes is made on the carrying capacity of the vessel, and not on the register tonnage. A vessel of 200 tons register is considered as 375 tons measurement of 45 cubic feet, or 309 tons dead weight of 2,240 pounds to the ton, according to the class of cargo loaded or unloaded. A fraction of $\frac{25}{100}$ ton is calculated as one ton.

Vessels loading coal are subject to the same port charges as for other

cargo, but if a full cargo of coal is unloaded the charges amount to 32½ cents per register ton; if less than ¼ cargo is discharged, 13½ cents per register ton; and if ¼ and less than ½, 22½ cents per register ton.

PILOTAGE.

Pilotage is not compulsory, but when the services of a pilot are required he can be had at the following rates:

Description.	Inward.	Outward.
Under 10 feet	$4 00	$3 00
From 10 to 12 feet	6 00	4 00
From 12 to 14 feet	8 00	5 50
From 14 to 16 feet	10 00	7 50
From 16 to 18 feet	12 00	8 50
From 18 to 20 feet	14 00	10 50
From 20 to 22 feet	16 00	12 00

At night double the above rates are charged. Regular lines of steamers taking pilots inward and outward pay only half of above rates.

LIGHT-HOUSE.

The light-house at the eastern entrance of the harbor is 115 feet high, with a fixed light of the fifth order, and is visible 12 miles.

HEALTH OFFICER.

The health officer boards only such vessels as come from ports declared infected. New York and New Orleans are the only ports in the United States so declared. The fee for boarding is, for steamers and square rigged vessels $5, and for schooners $3. Between 6 p. m. and 6 a. m. double the above fee is charged.

SANITARY REQUIREMENTS.

Should one or more of a vessel's crew be taken sick the master is required to have the same attended by a regular physician, and as a rule the sick must not remain on board, but be sent to hospital. If a contagious disease breaks out on board, the master must report the same at once to the harbor-master.

Vessels remaining any length of time in port can contract with a physician to attend the crew on shore at the rate of $3 for each man for the space of six weeks. In case no such contract is made physicians charge $1½ for each visit. The hospital charge is $2 per day. One man in hospital will cost a vessel $5 per day, besides medicine.

EXPENSES OF DISCHARGING CARGO.

The custom of the port is to discharge goods on each merchant's wharf at the expense of the vessel; steamers, however, exact that cargo shall betaken from alongside.

Lighters from 7 to 10 tons can be had, without men, at $5 per day. Wages of laborers, $1.25 per day. Lighterage can be contracted for at 8 cents per barrel. Stone ballast at 75 cents per ton. Cargoes of coal are hoisted and shoveled at 25 cents per ton. Lumber cargoes are pointed at 15 cents per 1,000 feet.

CHARGES ON VESSELS IN DISTRESS.

Vessels arriving in distress, unloading and reloading cargo, generally pay a commission to the consignees as follows:

If bound to United States or United Kingdom: 1¼ per cent. on value of cargo landed; 1¼ per cent. on value of cargo reshipped; 2 per cent. on storage; 5 per cent. on disbursements; 2 per cent. on auction sales; $100 agency commission.

If bound to any other country: 2½ per cent. on value of cargo landed; 2½ per cent. on value of cargo reshipped; 5 per cent. on auction sales; 5 per cent. on disbursements. The commission on storage and agency fee as per special agreement.

Duty on sale of damaged cargo is 1¼ per cent; duty on hull and materials 1¼ per cent.

To auction sales, 11 per cent. is added in calculating duties, and is paid by purchaser.

Money can be readily obtained on respondentia or bottomry bonds on vessels and cargoes bound to any port in the United States or the Continent, but it is very difficult to obtain it on vessels or cargoes bound to the United Kingdom.

Customary charges on sale of dry-goods.—Duty, 1¼ per cent.; storage, ⅛ per cent. per month; commissions and guarantee, 12½ per cent. Sales are usually made on nine-months' credit.

Charges on sale of provisions.—Duty, 1¼ per cent.; storage, 2 per cent.; labor, cooperage, commission and guarantee, 5 per cent. Discount, from ⅜ to 1 per cent. Provisions and flour are sold from two to four months' credit.

The foregoing scale of charges is subject to modification by special agreement.

Charges on goods in transit.—Duty, 1¼ per cent.; forwarding commission, 1¼ to 2 per cent. on value.

DUTY.

The following articles are admitted free of duty:

a. Fresh fish, live turtles, fresh fruits and vegetables, ingots of gold and silver, coin, coals, mules, asses, printed books and papers, used articles, such as clothes, furniture, instruments, &c., if imported as luggage for the use of those who have already used them.

b. Casks for sugar, rum, or molasses, staves, heading, hoops, agricultural implements, implements for boiling sugar, making rum, or to be used in sugar-mills, mill timber, burnt bricks, machinery or parts of machinery, manure.

c. Goods the production of the mother country.

A duty of one-half per cent. on the value of the article at place of exportation is charged, when imported from any port in the West Indies or continent of America, on the following articles: Arrowroot, balsams of all kinds, cotton, cocoa, coffee, cochineal, dividivi, dyewoods of all kinds, guayac, honey, horns, indigo, mahogany, molasses, pimento, lignumvitae, rum, sarsaparilla, tonco-beans, and wax.

All articles not above specified pay a duty of 1¼ per cent.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A vessel clearing in ballast for Porto Rico, Cuba, Santo Domingo, Hayti, and Venezuela is charged for bill of health and manifest as fol-

cian is called, the master must, without delay, report the same to the harbor-master, who has to call the land physician.

Transgressions of the regulations of this section will be punished by a fine of from $20 to $100.

§ 18. Masters of Danish vessels are obliged to receive royal mails for the port in which the vessel clears, and have in due time to report to the post-office at what time the vessel is destined to leave, which report, as a rule, must take place for vessels bound to the mother country at latest seven days, and to the Danish West India Islands at latest six hours before leaving.

§ 19. None of the crew of the vessel must be discharged or left behind without the police-master's permission, and every discharge from a crew must, before the vessel leaves the port, be noted on the muster-roll by the authority concerned. Neglect of the regulations of this section will be punished by a fine of from $10 to $200.

§20. Every person on board at the departure of the vessel, and not belonging to the crew of the vessel, as entered on the muster-roll by the authority concerned, must be provided with a lawful passport; in default of which the master will be fined in a sum of from $5 to $100.

§21. Before a vessel can depart the clearance has to be produced in the fort, and there at the same time it shall be pointed out where the vessel, which then must show her flag, is lying.

After sunset no vessel must leave the harbor without a special permission from the commander of the fort.

§22. The harbor-master's commands concerning order in the harbor must immediately be obeyed, and whoever transgresses them will be punished according to the existing laws, and will have personally to bear all expenses resulting therefrom.

§23. Neglect of these regulations will, in as far as not provided for in the foregoing, be punished by fines of from $5 to $100.

§24. Transgression on the rules here laid down will be treated as public police suits, with exception of the cases mentioned in section 9 to 11, which cases will be treated similarly as others appertaining to the customs department.

§25. Masters of vessels will, on arrival, receive a copy of these regulations gratis.

Tariff of W. I. and P. Telegraph Company.

	Per word.
To the United States east of the Mississippi	$2 17
To the United States west of the Mississippi	2 27
To Nova Scotia	2 27
To New Brunswick	2 27
To Cape Breton	2 27
To Vancouver's Island	2 27
To British Columbia	2 27
To Canada	2 22
To Key West	1 97
To Newfoundland	2 42
To Prince Edward Island	2 35
To Great Britain, Ireland, and France	2 67
To Germany and Italy	2 76
To Spain via Santander	2 83
To West Indian stations, from 25 cents to	92

POSTAGE RATES.

To places more than 300 nautical miles distant:

	Cents.
For ordinary letters, each 15 grams	10
For postal cards	3

	Cents.
For printed matter, each 50 grams	2
For documents, per first 100 grams	7
For each additional 50 grams	2
For register fee	7

Wholly unpaid letters are charged for each 15 grams 15 cents. Insufficiently prepaid, double the declared deficiency.

REVENUES.

The revenues derived from all sources during the year 1879–1880 are as follows:

From import duty	$31,059 95
From tax on vessels	53,066 54
From direct taxation	46,547 60
From postal department	17,307 25
From court fees	11,756 87
From sundry sources	21,928 91
Total	181,667 12

EXPENDITURES.

Contribution to general state expenses	$3,125 00
For the administrative department	26,577 64
For judicial and police	35,820 09
For church	1,350 00
For legislature	1,231 97
For customs department	7,168 15
For harbor and pilot	9,377 69
For postal department	19,417 40
For sanitary department	13,147 10
For poor department	5,156 47
For prison department	3,983 00
For school department	11,811 73
For fire department	2,928 78
For military department	27,842 75
For streets and roads	16,102 97
For pensions	5,960 26
For miscellaneous	12,949 47
Total	203,950 88
Expenditures exceed revenues	22,283 76

There was a slight decrease in revenues and increase in expenditures during the fiscal year ending March 31, 1881. A still greater decrease in revenues and increase in expenditures will be shown by the balance-sheet for the year ending March 31, 1882.

Population.

Description.	1860.	1870.	1880.
Males	5,439	5,934	5,757
Females	8,024	8,076	8,632
Total	13,463	14,010	14,389

According to the census taken in 1880 there are 3,146 males over twenty-one years of age, and 6,020 females over eighteen. There is no way of determining accurately how many of the inhabitants are white, but it is generally estimated that about ⅓ are. The white population

are, as a rule, citizens of Denmark, Spain, Italy, England, Germany, France, and the United States, who come here simply to make money; when they accomplish their object they go home to spend it. If they fail, they seek other fields.

Retail price of food (gold).

Flour	per barrel	$9 50
Rye flour	do	8 50
Corn meal	do	5 50
Salt pork	do	23 00
Potatoes	do	4 00
Salt fish	per box	6 50
Refined sugar	per pound	0 12
Corn	per sack (2 bushels)	2 75
Oats	per barrel	5 00
Chickens	per pair	1 00
Turkeys	per piece	5 00
Butter	per pound	$0 20 to 0 50
Cheese	do	12
Lard	do	16
Coffee	do	18
Tea	do	50
Rice	do	5
Beef	do	18
Veal	do	22
Mutton	do	22
Hams	do	0 15 to 0 20
Eggs	per dozen	40

Wages of labor.

Carpenters and masons	per day	$1 50
Calkers, painters, and riggers	do	1 25
Cooks and house servants	per month	5 00
Porters employed in stores	do	12 00
Coalheavers	per basket	01
Day laborers	per hour	10

Salaries of officials and government employés.

Governor	$10,000
Secretary	3,500
Clergyman	900
Treasurer	2,200
Auditor	2,000
Judge of upper court, one-half of salary	1,750
Judge, *ex-officio*, sheriff, notary public, &c	3,000
Collector of customs	3,200
Police judge	3,100
School superintendent	2,800
Postmaster	2,200
Harbor-master	2,000
Minor officials, clerks, and messengers	48,050
Total	84,700

This is $6 per head for each man, woman, and child on the island. The other expenses of government amounts to $8; total per head $14. In addition to the salaries specified, some officials receive fees for services rendered by them.

CONSULS.

The following governments are represented here by consuls: Argentine Republic, Austro-Hungary, Bolivia, Belgium, Brazil, Chili, Costa Rica, United States of Colombia, Ecuador, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Guatemala, Hayti, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, Nica-

ragua, Peru, Portugal, Prussia, Spain, Santo Domingo, San Salvador, Sweden and Norway, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela.

All the consuls are engaged in business except those for Great Britain, Spain, and the United States.

LOCAL INSTITUTIONS.

Bank of Saint Thomas, capital, $600,000; Colonial Bank, branch of Colonial Bank, London; Saint Thomas Savings Bank; Commercial Marine Insurance Company; Saint Thomas Gas-Light Company (limited), capital, $40,000; Saint Thomas Ice Company; West India Ice Company; Saint Thomas Sanitary and Dry Earth Company; Saint Thomas Club; International Club; Apollo Theater.

Newspapers.—Saint Thomas Tidenole (official), Saint Thomas Times, issued Wednesdays and Saturdays. An extra, containing general telegraphic news, is issued from both offices daily except Sundays.

Churches.—The Evangelical Lutheran Church (state); All Saints English Episcopal Church; Reformed Dutch Church; Moravian Mission (three); Catholic Church of St. Peter and St. Paul; Chapel of "Our Lady of Perpetual Succour"; British Methodist Episcopal Church (colored); Synagogue "Blessings, Peace,and Acts of Piety".

Schools.—College supported by government; common schools supported by government; Moravian school; St. Thomas College, and three other schools (Catholic); private schools.

Lodges and chapters.—Harmonic Lodge, No. 356; Zetland Chapter, No. 356, of Royal Arch Masons; Les Cœurs Sinceres, No. 141; Le Triangle Sacre, No. 160, Rose Croix Chapter; Brilliant Star Lodge, No. 1908, G. U. O. O. F.; Loyal Sincerity and Harmony Lodge No. 6304 of the I. O. O. F. M. U. F. S.

BUSINESS FIRMS, &c.

As I am frequently in receipt of letters in which I am asked to give the names of business firms, professional men, or trades-people, it may not be inappropriate to here furnish a list of some of the principal ones, to whom letters can be addressed either for information or on business:

J. P. Jorgensen and H. B. Petersen, lawyers.

A. Magens and F. Erichson, Chas. Brondsted and E. Pontoppidan, P. Tellamanzi, physicians.

Jas. Gordon, dentist.

Feddersen Willink & Co., Gandarias, Bregaro & Co., Thos. Pearson & Co., J. F. T. Tiltey & Co., Castello & Co., dry goods and commission merchants.

Felix Nunes & Co., Wm. White, dry and fancy goods.

Peirano, Hermanos & Co., shoes and dry goods.

Raven & Co., provisions and commission merchants.

J. H. Fechtenburg & Co., O. Ffrench & Co., provisions, liquors, &c.

Klingberg Krebs & Co., H. Michelsen, provisions, wines, &c.

Sala & Co., wholesale provisions.

Russel Bros., J. Fidanque, family groceries and liquors.

V. Martineau, provisions.

Briscoe McDougal & Co., Cameron & Co., Jos. Levi & Sons, hardware and general merchandise.

Delinois, Freres & Co., Otto Marstrand, hats, lumber.

R. S. Peireira, fancy and millinery goods.

A. H. Reise, drugs and medicines.

C. E. Taylor, books and stationery.

Drefer & Co., cigars and tobacco.
G. W. Smith & Co., Bache & Co., J. F. D. Jurgens & Co., commission merchants, ship-chandlers, and brokers.
I. T. Abbott & Co., Lamb & Co., Philips & Co., commission merchants and ship-brokers.
F. M. Corneiro, jeweler and optician.
H. Mortensen, jeweler.
Widow Jos. Daniel, Joseph Hughes, shipwrights.
E. Frass, photographer.
J. B. M. Monsanto, broker.
J. C. George, tinsmith.
C. F. Jackson, painter and gilder.
F. Lanclos, shoemaker.
T. W. Audain, tailor.

TRADE.

The principal articles imported are linens, cottons, woolens, silks, unions, clothing, boots and shoes, hats, fancy goods, jewelry, flour, rye-flour, corn-meal, salt pork, hams, butter, cheese, lard, refined sugar, salt and pickled fish, pickled beef, potatoes, hard bread, canned provisions, coffee, tea, cacao, rice, sugar, onions, ice, vinegar, spice, vermicelli, copper, iron, cast iron nails, hardware, earthenware, glassware, leather, saddlery, paper, lumber, shingles, cement, tobacco, cigars, coal, paints, sweet oil, coal oil, soap, rope, wine, brandy, gin, liquors, beer, rum, candles, starch powder, medicines, perfumery, fowls, horses, cattle, sheep, swine, turpentine, pitch, tar, rosin, furniture, ship-chandlery, charcoal, and sundries.

The foregoing articles are imported for sale to merchants of other islands. Nothing is produced or manufactured on the island for export, except a small quantity of bay-oil and bay-water. About one-half in value of all imports come from Great Britain. The average value of yearly imports from the United States is about $500,000. The value of importations from the States, other than that of provisions and lumber, is insignificant. Merchants say that the prices of all things manufactured in the States change so rapidly that it is not safe for them to rely upon having their orders filled there. The first order sent by them is filled to their satisfaction, both as to quality and price. When they send a second order the prices have advanced far beyond what the same article would cost them in Europe. I presume merchants at ports of much more importance than this make the same complaint.

V. V. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Saint Thomas, October 26, 1881.

NOTES.

Emigration from Bremen to the United States.—Consul Grinnell, of Bremen, informs the Department of State, under date of November 2, 1881, that the number of emigrants leaving Bremen for the United States during the month of October amounted to 11,532. Of this total number 8,508 went to New York, 2,422 to Baltimore, and 602 to New Orleans and Galveston. The total number of emigrants sailing from Bremen to the United States from January 1 to October 31, 1881, amounted to 114,789.

Population of Canada.—Commercial agent Carroll, of Port Stanley and St. Thomas, Canada, transmits to the Department the following statement, showing the population of Canada:

SECOND CENSUS OF CANADA.

Unrevised Statement of Population compared with preceding Censuses.

	Population.						
	1861.	1871.	Increase.	Percentage.	1881.	Increase.	Percentage.
Prince Edward Island	80, 857	94, 021	13, 164	16. 2	108, 928	14, 907	15. 85
Nova Scotia	330, 857	387, 800	56, 943	17. 2	440, 585	52, 785	13. 61
New Brunswick	252, 047	285, 594	33, 547	13. 3	321, 129	35, 535	12. 44
Quebec	1, 111, 566	1, 191, 516	79, 950	7. 2	1, 358, 469	166, 953	14. 01
Ontario	1, 396, 091	1, 620, 851	224, 760	16. 1	1, 913, 460	292, 609	18. 05
Manitoba (former limits)	.....	12, 728	.....	.....	49, 509	36, 781	289. 00
British Columbia (including Indians) estimated	.....	33, 586	.....	.....	60, 000	26, 414	78. 64
Territories and Manitoba Extension (Indians included), estimated	.....	60, 500	.....	.....	100, 000	39, 500	65. 28
Total		3, 686, 596			4, 352, 080	665, 484	18. 05

Portsmouth, Dominica.—The consul at Antigua says that 58 vessels of 5,652 tons entered at Portsmouth, island of Dominica, during the years 1879 and 1880. Of these 47 were whaling and 11 trading vessels.

The whalers make the port a base for operations during the months of March, April, and May, where a considerable number of whales are captured. The harbor is an excellent one, where supplies are cheaply and easily obtained.

The Island of Montserrat.—Consul Jackson, of Antigua, writes to the Department of State, under date of October 17, 1881, regarding the Island of Montserrat, as follows:

This island lies in the Leeward group, and is situated about 25 miles to the southwest of Antigua, of which it is a dependency. According to the last census its population amounted to 8,693 souls, mainly engaged in the production of sugar and limes, and the island itself is the most beautiful and prosperous of the smaller islands of either the Leeward or Windward groups,

The industry of lime-raising has assumed considerable importance, and Montserrat may be called the home of "concentrated lime-juice." It also produces between 2,000 and 3,000 tons of sugar annually.

I am informed by Mr. Boyce, the agent for the Montserrat Lime Company, that it is his intention to make bi-monthly shipments per steamer, clearing from that port for

the United States, and that it would facilitate matters if the port had an American consul to verify invoices.

The exports of Montserrat amount annually to the sum of $200,000, and its imports to $150,000. The trade is directed towards the United States and should be fostered.

Emigration from Norway.—Consul Gade, of Christiania, under date of August 13, 1881, supplies the following information concerning Norwegian emigration:

Again this year the Norwegian emigration, and particularly that over the port of Christiania, is very large. Up to the end of July it has been larger than in any previous year. The following are the figures given me by the police authorities of this port: Adults, 9,223; children under twelve years, 2,208; infants under one year, 519; total, 11,960.

It is computed that 4,899 of this number left for the United States, with tickets prepaid by friends and relatives there. There has been no emigration this year to the Sandwich Islands, although the reports sent by Norwegian laborers who settled there last year, are, on the whole, satisfactory.

The increasing exodus of thousands of useful citizens has not failed to attract public attention, and at the same time to call forth some anxiety throughout Scandinavia. At a recent meeting of Scandinavian political economists, at Malmoe, in Sweden, the question of the influence of emigration on the industry of the Scandinavian countries was discussed. The Swedish journalists from Gothenburg, who moved the question, believed that neither political nor religious reasons were at the bottom of the ever-increasing emigration, but that the people only desired to secure a better social and economical position than that they had in their native land. He suggested that the meeting should request the government to appoint a committee to examine into the causes of the emigration, and take measures for it in the future. A few agreed to this, but others thought that it would be of more harm than use to apply to the government, as a law against emigration would lay too great a restraint on individual liberty. The proposition was rejected, but the meeting resolved that emigration could only be reduced by measures tending to improve the condition of the laboring classes.

American vs. British salmon.—Consul Leonard, of Leith, Scotland, under date of September 30, 1880, transmits the following article, published in the Daily Scotsman of the 23d of same month:

THE SALMON CROP OF THE COLUMBIA, AND THAT OF THE RIVERS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Some thoughts with regard to the salmon fisheries in this country are naturally suggested by the statistics of the "canneries" at Astoria, at the mouth of the Columbia River, which recently appeared in our columns. In the first place, with reference to the size of the salmon, one of 84 pounds weight is mentioned, which filled 64 tins, and it is stated that six fish over 80 pounds have been recorded, and that they often exceed 60 pounds. This is certainly considerably larger than those of this country; for, though Mr. Gavrell mentions one of 83 pounds as having come into the possession of Mr. Groves, of Bond street, we find, from the catalogue given by the late Mr. Buckland of the largest salmon in his museum, that the two largest were a Tay salmon of 70 pounds and a Rhine one of 69 pounds. But even more striking than the size of the fish in the Columbia is the enormous number caught. A million and a half of salmon (that is, *Salmo quinnat*, or California salmon) are said to have been captured in the Columbia in the course of this year. That is, a single American river has produced many more salmon than the whole of the rivers of Great Britain and Ireland put together. This may seem a startling statement, but we proceed to prove it. The largest number of boxes of salmon sent up to the London market from Scotland in any one year between 1834 and 1875 was 32,180 boxes, the average weight of each box being 112 pounds, which gives 3,604,160 pounds weight of salmon; and assuming the average weight of each fish to be 12 pounds, we have 300,346 salmon sent from Scotland to the London market in a single year. Add a half more—a very full allowance for salmon consumed at home and sent elsewhere than to London—and we get 450,519 fish as the total yield of the Scotch salmon fisheries. Let us now go to the Irish fisheries. According to the statement of the Irish inspectors, the total number of boxes of salmon exported from Ireland in 1875 was 44,274, which multiplied by 112, gives us 4,958,688 pounds of salmon; and divided by 12 pounds, the assumed average weight of the fish, gives us 413,224 salmon as the total yield of the Irish rivers. We shall not be far wrong if we estimate the English salmon fisheries at one-third of the Scotch, or

150,173 fish. Let us now see how these fisheries of the United Kingdom stand when compared with those of the Columbia, as given by our correspondent:

Columbia		1,500,000
Scotland	450.519	
Ireland	413,224	
Englrnd	150,173	1,013,916
Majority for Columbia		486,084

Truly the Columbia is a wonderful river, even for America, and the Americans are making the most of it, not merely by the number of salmon that they catch and tin, but also by using it as a nursery to stock their comparatively barren eastern rivers; for we find from the last report of Prof. Spencer F. Baird that, in 1875, 11,000,000 of salmon eggs were collected at the establishment of the United States Government on the Columbia, and sent eastward to the various States. When will our government follow the example of that of the United States and of Canada, and support "hatcheries" for artificial breeding as the best means of preventing the threatening dearth of salmon?

Nottingham Lace and Hosiery.—Mr. Smith, commercial agent at Nottingham, furnishes the following statistics concerning the exports of lace and hosiery for that district:

The last report of the Board of Trade and Navigation shows that the export of lace goods and hosiery from the United Kingdom to all countries during the month of October last, and for the corresponding months in the year 1880, were as follows:

	October, 1880.	October, 1881.
Lace and patent net	$623,613 00	$920,298 00
Silk lace	33,943 83	102,444 70
	657,556 83	1,022,742 70
		657,556 83
Showing an increase of		365,185 87

The same report shows the report of lace goods during the ten months of this year as follows:

	Ten months of 1880.	Ten months of 1881.
Lace and patent net	$8,271,987 66	$9,587,085 75
Silk lace	370,894 50	983,719 00
	8,642,882 16	10,570,804 75
		8,642,882 16
Showing an increase of		1,927,922 59

The exports of cotton hosiery during the same periods were as follows:

	Ten months of 1880.	Ten months of 1881.
Stockings and socks	$140,221 13	$171,675 50
Other kinds	197,940 00	221,644 74
	338,161 13	393,320 24
		338,161 13
Showing an increase of		55,159 11

Exports of cotton hosiery during ten months were as follows:

	Ten months of 1880.	Ten months of 1881.
Stockings and socks	$1,642,164 00	$1,914,124 50
Other kinds	2,300,129 50	2,624,334 00
		4,538,458 50
	3,942,293 50	3,942,293 50
Showing an increase of		596,165 00

The value of woolen hosiery exported, or of wool mixed with other materials, is as follows:

October, 1880, $204,890; 1881, $171,612.25; showing decrease of $33,277.75. Ten months of 1880, $1,227,166; 1881, $1,047,840; showing decrease of $179,326.

The number of dozen pairs of stockings and socks exported was as follows:

October, 1880, 86,766; 1881, 159,463; showing increase of 72,697 pairs. Ten months of 1880, 1,011,631; 1881, 1,354,544; showing increase of 342,913 pairs.

Austro-Hungarian Budget for 1882.—Consul-General Weaver writes as follows, under date of October 22, 1881, to the Department of State, on the Hungarian Budget for 1882:

On the 19th instant, the Hungarian Minister of Finance presented to the Reichstag at Budapesth the estimates for the year 1882, accompanying them, as is usual, with certain explanatory statements. The most prominent feature of his *exposé* is that although the total revenues for 1882 are estimated at 301,000,000 florins, against 276,000,000 in 1881, there is left a deficit of 25,000,000 to be covered by a special loan, or some other financial operation. The total expenditures are augmented from 300,000,000 florins for the current year to 327,000,000 for 1882. This increase arises principally on account of the regulation of the river Theiss and the construction of the Pesth-Semlin Railroad.

The Neue freie Presse of to-day, commenting on the Hungarian budget and the financial requirement of Austria for 1882, presents a startling view of the future financial condition of this Empire. It says that Hungary will require for 1882 a loan of 54,000,000 florins, nominal, to cover its actual deficit of 48,000,000. This last arises as follows: 25,000,000 deficit, 14,000,000 for Pesth-Semlin Railway (not included in the foregoing), and 8,500,000 for the redemptions of State debt, to cover which, at the usual rate of issue (88 per cent.), would require 54,000,000 florins.

In regard to Austria proper it remarks that it is ascertained from reliable sources that the following are approximatively the requirements of the Austrian half of the Empire, viz: a deficit of 30,000,000, the redemption of State debt 11,000,000; Treasury notes 10,000,000. and the Arlberg Rail was 16,000,000, making a total of 67,000,000 florins, to cover which by a loan will necessitate the issue of rentes to the amount of 73,000,000 florins, nominal, from which it appears that for 1882 there will be for the entire Empire an effective deficit of 115,000,000 florins, to be covered by an issue of rentes to the amount of 127,000,000 florins, nominal, and then closes with the pertinent remark, "Any commentary is superfluous."

Light-ship at Bahia Blanca.—Consul Baker, of Buenos Ayres, reports to the Department of State, under date of October 3, 1881, the establishment of a light-ship at Bahia Blanca:

I have to inform you that a light-house, the first one on the Atlantic coast below the mouth of the La Plata River, has been erected by the Argentine Government in the harbor of Bahia Blanca. I inclose a description of the light, as also the decree of the President of the Republic in regard to it.

Bahia Blanca is actually the only harbor on the entire Argentine coast—not to mention those on the Southern Patagonia coast—which has enough water to float sea-going vessels; and it is the natural outlet for all that vast grazing region known as the southern pampas of the province of Buenos Ayres. The town itself is one of the oldest in the country, but owing to the fact that the channel leading up to it from the ocean is tortuous, full of bars, and dangerous to navigate without lights and buoys, the commerce naturally belonging to the place has never been developed, everything from

that region of country coming up to Buenos Ayres in bullock carts, for shipment. The placing of this light will doubtless give an impetus to the business of the town; and our wide awake American merchants, if they make the proper effort, might gain an advantage in the export and import trade which is destined to centre there. Back of it are most valuable lands stocked with sheep, cows, horses, &c., and during the last year population has been flowing in there very steadily, mostly emigrants from Great Britain. The town still lacks wharves, moles, &c., but it is the intention of the national government at once to make provision for these. I inclose a paragraph on the subject from the Buenos Ayres Standard.

BAHIA BLANCA, *October* 11, 1881.

To the MINISTER OF WAR:

(Official.)

The ponton light, Manuelita, placed in its position on the 5th, is painted red, and for the present will use the light of the Bermejo. The light is white, elevated to a height of 35 feet, and is visible at sea for a distance of 10 miles. The Manuelita is anchored with Monte Hermoso to the south, 35° west, and from Nameless Point south 50° to the east, where the soundings at low-tide give 7½ fathoms of water. From the light to the northwest, leading over the bar, the depth is at the shallowest not less than 7 fathoms. The entrance to the Bay of Bahia Blanca, therefore, no longer places any difficulty in the way of the navigator.

COMANDANTE DE LA BERMEJO.

In virtue of the above telegram the following decree has been issued:

BUENOS AYRES, *October* 11, 1881.

Considering the establishment of lights along our Atlantic seaboard is of the highest importance to all navigators, and more especially for the safety of our vessels of war, and that the above telegram, from the commission of lights and buoys, announces the placing of the first Argentine light,

The President of the Republic decrees:

ARTICLE 1. The captain-general of the ports is hereby authorized to have the above telegram, from the commander of the gunboat Bermejo, Sergeant-major Don Enrique Howard, printed, and will use every effort in his power to make it known to all navigators interested in the navigation of the southern coasts of the Republic.

ART. 2. In accordance with the decree which defines and establishes the duties of the central hydrographic office to give every possible publicity to this kind of news, let this be communicated to the director of that department and to the minister of foreign affairs.

ART. 3. Let a note be addressed to the chief of the commission of lights and buoys, Dn. Enrique Howard, commander of the gunboat Bermejo, complimenting him on his activity and the intelligence he has displayed in successfully concluding the important work confided to him of lighting and buoying the harbor of Bahia Blanca.

ART. 4. Let this be communicated, published, and archived in the National Register.

ROCA.

BENJAMIN VICTORICA.

International Exhibition of Ships' Models.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
London, October 12, 1881.

SIR: I have the honor to inclose herewith the copy of a letter addressed to this legation by Alfred D. Lewis, esq., honorary secretary of an international exhibition of ships' models, proposed to be held in this city in May, 1882, and also certain documents accompanying the same.

I have written to Mr. Lewis that I should forward his communication to the Department of State.

I have the honor to be, &c.,

W. J. HOPPIN.

Hon. JAMES G. BLAINE,
Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVE EXHIBITION, 1882,
WORSHIPFUL COMPANY OF SHIPWRIGHTS,
Fishmongers' Hall, London, E. C., October 10, 1881.

YOUR EXCELLENCY: At the request of the wardens and court of assistants of the Worshipful Company of Shipwrights, I have the honor of forwarding you the inclosed particulars for their intended international exhibition of ships' models to be held in May, 1882.

The guild hope that through your influence your government may kindly countenance the exhibition by contributing models, &c., and also by affording any international facility that your excellency might deem essential.

I have the honor to be, &c.,

ALFRED D. LEWIS.

His Excellency, Hon. JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL,
The Members' Mansions, Victoria street, S. W.

[Form 2—Sections B to K.]

Worshipful Company of Shipwrights, incorporated 1612.

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVE EXHIBITION OF SHIPS' MODELS, 1882.

Tabular form for calculations, and particulars of designs to be filled in by competitors, as far as convenient, under those headings that are applicable to their designs, and sent in with the models.

SECTION ——, CLASS ——.

Length on load line, ——.
Breadth, extreme, ——.
Depth from top of keel to under side of upper weather deck, ——.
Superstructures above weather deck, ——.
Depth from top of keel to main deck, ——.
Draught of water, loaded, ——.
Gross register tonnage, ——.
Net register tonnage, ——.
Area of immersed midship section, ——.
Displacement of load line, ——.
Center of displacement from stern post, ——.
Center of displacement from top of keel, ——.
Center of gravity of displacement above top of keel, ——.
Transverse metacentric height above center of gravity, ——.
Rig, ——.
Area of sails ——; square feet, ——.
Center of effort of sails above load line, ——.
Ballast: Description, ——; quantity, ——; tons, ——.
Cargo: Description, ——; quantity, ——; tons, ——.
Passenger: First class, ——; second class, ——; third class, ——.
System of construction, ——.
Material of hull: (Steel, iron, composite, wood.)

ADDITIONAL PARTICULARS FOR STEAMER CLASSES.

Weight of engines, boilers with water, ——.
Cylinders: number, ——; stroke, ——; diameter, ——.
Boilers: description, ——; number, ——.
Working pressure: ——; revolutions, ——.
Propeller: ——; diameter, ——.
Screw, ——; blades, ——; pitch, ——.
Coals, —— tons.
Indicated horse-power, ——.
Speed, ——.
Days full steaming, with coals as specified, ——.
Days half-speed, with coals as specified, ——.

Special particulars for those models to which the above forms are not applicable.

SECTION ——, CLASS ——.

DIMENSIONS AND PARTICULARS.

Signature of competitor, —— ——.

Address of competitor, —— ——.

CLASSIFICATION OF INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVE EXHIBITION, 1882, OF MODELS OF SHIPS OF ALL KINDS.

STEAMSHIP CLASSES.

SECTION A, VESSELS OF WAR.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—First class sea-going ironclads to carry heavy guns and to act as rams.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 2.—Ironclads for coast or harbor defense.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 3.—Steel or iron corvettes of great speed.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 4.—Torpedo boats (scale ½ inch to 1 foot) adapted for a speed of 25 miles an hour.
Torpedo boats adapted for a speed of 18 miles an hour.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 5.—Various other types of war vessels (for exhibition only).

MERCANTILE STEAMERS.

SECTION B.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—The best mail steamer for the American trade between America and Great Britain, France, or Hamburg.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 2.—Steamers best adapted for a direct mail service between England and Australia, say in 32 days.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 3.—Steamers of the largest class for trading between Europe and the East via Suez Canal.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 4.—For the best Atlantic cattle and grain steamer.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.

SECTION C.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—Steamer for short sea passage of 30 miles, to best combine speed, comfort for passengers, and safety on a draught of water of—say 9 feet.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 2.—River passenger steamer for the Thames.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 3.—River passenger steamer for the Mersey.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 4.—River passenger steamer for the Clyde.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.

AMERICAN RIVER BOATS.

SECTION C C.

United States river passenger or goods steamers.
(Conditions unlimited) 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.

SAILING SHIPS.

SECTION D.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—Sailing ships not exceeding 2,000 tons register.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 2.—Sailing ships not exceeding 1,100 tons register.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.

YACHTS.

SECTION E.—Scale recommended ⅛ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—Schooner yachts of 60 tons and upwards.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 2.—Cutter yachts or yawls, 10 tons and upwards.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.
CLASS 3.—Screw steam yachts of from 60 feet in length and upwards.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.

FISHING SMACKS.

SECTION F.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—Fishing smacks of from 50 to 60 tons burden.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze; and £26:5 offered by the Fishmongers' Company.
CLASS 2.—Steam trawlers.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze; and £26:5 offered by the Fishmongers' Company.

TUGS.

SECTION G.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—Sea-going tugs, either paddle or screw.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 2.—Screw river tugs (scale ½ inch to 1 foot) not more than 80 feet in length.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.
CLASS 3.—Light-draught river tugs (scale ½ inch to 1 foot) either twin screw or paddle, not exceeding 4 feet draught.
Prizes 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.

BARGES.

SECTION H.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—Sailing barges of 100 tons burden and upwards.
Prizes: 3 medals, viz, gold, silver, and bronze.
CLASS 2.—Swim-ended barges of 60 tons burden and upwards.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.

BOATS.

SECTION J.—Scale recommended 1 inch to 1 foot.

CLASS 1.—Life boats.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.
CLASS 2.—Ships' ordinary boats.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.
CLASS 3.—Pleasure boats.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.

STEAM LAUNCHES.

SECTION K.—Scale recommended ½ inch to 1 foot.

Steam launches not exceeding 50 feet in length.
Prizes: 2 medals, viz, silver and bronze.

SECTION L.

Models not intended for competition.

VENTILATION OF SHIPS.

A sum of £50 offered by Mr. Ex-Sheriff Burt will be also awarded for the best system proposed for the improved ventilation of passenger vessels. Conditions of competition will be hereafter announced.

ALFRED D. LEWIS,
Hon. Secretary, Shipwrights' Exhibition Committee.

FISHMONGERS' HALL, *May*, 1881.

It is probable that the awards may in certain classes be supplemented by money prizes given by members of the company and others.

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVE EXHIBITION OF SHIPS' MODELS, 1882.

REGULATIONS AS TO COMPETITION.

The competition will be open to either naval architects, ship-builders, or ship-owners (on behalf of the builders or designers), English or foreign.

No exhibitor may compete in more than two classes.

No model of a vessel to be entered for competition built more than five years ago.

Competitors to fill up and send in tabular forms (which will be supplied by the company), giving particulars and calculations of their designs, and to furnish such further information (if any) as the judges may require. The tabular forms to be sent with the models.

Exhibitors should as far as possible adhere to the scales for the models recommended for the various classes as given in the programme of classification, as any considerable deviation may endanger the acceptance of the model.

The acceptance or rejection of models sent will rest with a committee of selection, and the awards of the judges in the various classes will be final. The judges will reserve to themselves full liberty to withhold any prize where the merits of the exhibits do not in their judgment warrant such recognition of excellence.

Each model should have a label attached specifying the section and class for which it is entered—thus, Section B, Class 2; and the same information must be plainly marked on the outside of each box or package.

Models should be delivered, carriage paid, to Fishmongers' Hall, London, on 20th, 21st, or 22d April, 1882, addressed Alfred D. Lewis, esq., Hon. Secretary Shipwrights' Exhibition Committee, Fishmongers' Hall, London; and be removed from the hall within three days from 13th May, the date for closing the exhibition. Every care will be taken of exhibits, but which, however, will be at sender's risk.

Intending competitors or exhibitors should return the "application form" not later than the 15th March, 1882, to the above-named honorable secretary, Fishmongers' Hall, London, giving the dimensions of their proposed exhibits for which they desire space.

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVE EXHIBITION OF SHIPS' MODELS, 1882.

FORM OF APPLICATION.

Name of competitor: ——— ———,
Address: ——— ———,
Section, ——; Class ——.
Dimensions of models. If full model, include case, if any. Feet ———, inches, ———
Dimensions of model. If half model, include board. Feet, ———, inches, ———.
Leading particulars of design for catalogue.

NOTE.—This form must be filled in by intending competitors and sent in to Alfred D. Lewis, esq., hon. secretary of the exhibition committee, Fishmongers' Hall, London, E. C., not later than the 15th March, 1882.

The tabular form to be sent with the proposed exhibit.

Worshipful Company of Shipwrights. Incorporated 1612.

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITIVE EXHIBITION OF SHIPS' MODELS, 1882.

Tabular form for calculations, and particulars of designs, to be filled in by competitors, as far as convenient, under those headings that are applicable to their designs, and sent in with the models.

Section A, Class ———.

Length on load line, ———.
Breadth, extreme, ———.
Depth from top of keel to under side of upper weather deck, ———
Depth from top of keel to main deck, ———.
Superstructures above main deck, ———.
Draught (mean) of water, loaded, ———.
Area of immersed midship section, ———.
Displacement to load line, ———.
Center of displacement from stern post, ———.
Center of displacement from top of keel. ———.
Center of gravity above top of keel, ———.
Tranverse metacentric height above center of gravity, ———.

Angle of maximum stability, ———.
Range of stability, ———.
Rig, ———.
Area of square sails, ———; square feet, ———.
Center of effort of sails above load line, ———.
Ballast: Description, ———; quantity, ———; tons, ———.
System of construction, ———.
Material of hull: (steel, iron, composite, wood.)
Weight of vessel ready for sea without engines, armament, and provisions, ———.
Armor thicknesses, ———; disposition, ———.
Armor backing, ———.

ADDITIONAL PARTICULARS FOR MACHINERY.

Weight of engines, boilers with water, ———.
Cylinders: Number, ———; stroke, ———; diameter, ———.
Boilers: Description, ———; number, ———.
Working pressure: ———; revolutions, ———.
Propeller: ———; diameter, ———.
Screw, ———; blades, ———; pitch, ———.
Coals, ———; tons, ———.
Indicated horse-power, ———.
Speed per hour, ———.
Days full steaming, with coals as specified, ———.
Days half speed, with coals as specified, ———.

ARMAMENT.

Guns: Number, ———; description, ———; weight, ———.
Size, ———; weight of shot, ———; weight of powder, ———.
Disposition, ———.
Torpedo arrangements, ———.

Special particulars for models to which the above form is not applicable.

Section A, Class ——.

DIMENSIONS AND PARTICULARS.

TORPEDO BOATS.

Section A, Class 4.

Length, ———.
Breadth, ———.
Depth, ———.
Draught aft, ———; draught forward, ———.
Speed per hour, ———.
Actual power, ———.
Particulars of engines, ———.
Particulars of boiler, ———.
Fuel, ———; quantity, ———; number of hours full steaming, ———.
Weight of vessel, ———.
Weight of engines and boiler with water, ———.
General remarks, ———.

Signature of competitor: ——— ———.
Address of competitor: ——— ———.

Japanese Exports and Imports.—Minister Bingham, of Japan, communicates with the Department of State under date of November 23, 1881, relative to the Japanese exports and imports for September, 1880, as follows:

The monthly returns of His Imperial Majesty's customs of Japan, for September, 1881, show that the value of foreign imports during the month amounted to 2,763,426.03 yen,* and that the value of domestic products exported for the same period amounted to 2,689,856 yen.

The export of specie and bullion was in excess of the import thereof for the month and amounted to 760,000 yen in round numbers.

* United States Treasury valuation of the Japanese yen is $.88,8.

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